The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 4, 1897.

The Week.

MR. CLEVELAND'S parting veto—of the Immigration bill, namely—is not the least of the services he has rendered his country. He does not exhaust the list of objections to a measure which was doubtless favored and actively promoted by many well-meaning citizens out of Congress, but which was most ostentatiously urged and defended within that body by Jingoes, protectionists, and labor demagogues, and which even so passed the Senate by a bare majority of three. The President clearly enough sets forth the contrast between the policy here attempted and that which has been observed by this country, except in the case of the Chinese, hitherto, in welcoming all sound-bodied, industrious immigrants from any quarter, and shows how loosely the bill was drawn, what uncertainty and hardship and inhumanity its execution would entail, and what an irritating effect it would have on our immediate neighbors particularly, by its provisions regarding crossing the border in search of temporary employment.

President Cleveland's proclamations adding many vast tracts to the national forest-preserves mark the completion of a great work of enduring value to the country which has been done in the right way. Some years ago Congress authorized the Executive to withdraw from public sale parts of the forested public lands, and during the Harrison administration about 18,000,000 acres were thus set apart, to which are now added about 21,000,000 acres more. There was no "politics" in the business from first to last. The selection of lands, instead of being intrusted to office-seekers whose claims could not be otherwise met, was committed to a board of experts appointed by the National Academy of Sciences, with Prof. Sargent of Harvard as President and other men of equal fitness as his associates. For many years past, clear-sighted men have pointed out that the reckless cutting of timber in the far West threatened irreparable harm to the interests of that section, and so of the whole nation; but the danger was that, as there was "nothing in it" for the politicians, the movement for forest preservation might fail, especially as selfish interests were bitterly opposed to the reform. That in the face of these obstacles it has been achieved, is cause for national congratulation.

The Treasury statement for February invites comparison with the corresponding statement for February, 1893. Of course, we all know that President Harrison turned over the Treasury in a glorious condition, and we know that President Cleveland has emptied it and is now maliciously smiling as he hands over nothing but debt and deficit to his successor. We know this because several reputable stump-speakers and a multitude of veracious newspapers have so asserted. But it may be just as well to ask what the official figures say. They may be lying, but what they say is that the total available funds in the Treasury at the end of February, 1893, amounted to $146,812,418; the corresponding sum now is $212,837,255. Then the gold in excess of certificates reached $103,000,000; now it is $147,000,000. The available cash balance above the gold reserve was then $49,000,000—practically, counting out unavailable fractional coin and the fund for the redemption of national banknotes, less than $30,000,000. Now it is $112,000,000. But then we were tremendously prosperous, and now we are ruined, and all on account of the condition of the Treasury. The figures confirming the paradox it is just as well to put on record for the future use of students of national ruin, its symptoms and its causes, its *Werden* and its *Wesen*, as the German philosophers say. It is true we have borrowed $290,000,000 in three years, but every dollar of this borrowing was necessitated by laws passed during the Harrison administration.

The final report of the Venezuelan Commission expresses no opinion on the question where the "true divisional line" between British Guiana and Venezuela lies. Such opinion, even if the Commissioners had formed one, would be inappropriate after another tribunal has been provided for, expressly to decide that point. The work done by the Commission, however, will expedite the task of the arbitrators by many months, and will probably make both the parties more easily satisfied with the finding. We need not ask ourselves what would have been the result if the Commission had reported what they deemed the true divisional line, and one or the other of the countries interested had refused to accept it. Fortunately, all the possibilities hinging on that eventuality have sunk below the horizon. We have no troubles with Great Britain to face, although some of the belligerents of the Senate are groping to find one in the Bering Sea question. Senator Pettigrew insists that England ought to show more interest in suppressing pelagic sealing. Senator Morgan, the indefatigable searcher for foreign grievances, says that the anger and jealousy of Great Britain were excited when we acquired Alaska, and that immediately the Canadian raiders were turned into Bering Sea, who destroyed 400,000 seals the first year. Morgan knows all about it because he was a member of the Paris arbitration commission, and he knows that one of our contentions was, and is, that the bulk of these Canadian raiders were American ship-owners who got themselves registered in British Columbia in order to secure British protection. Pettigrew suggested the killing of all the seals when they come to the breeding islands, in order to prevent the Canadian raiders from killing them in the water. There is one manifest disadvantage about this plan, and we wonder that Morgan did not mention it. If the seals were annihilated there would be one less bone of contention and one less foreign complication to rant over and distress the business community with.

Congressman Grosvenor of Ohio took occasion last week to vent once more his disgust at civil-service reform and the existing merit system (which he characterized as "a sinuous, infamous conspiracy upon the Government"), and his confidence that "there is a tide rising in this country which will sweep this bureaucracy from power." A Democratic member from Texas attempted to attach importance to Grosvenor's remarks, "because of his well-known relations to the incoming President"; but the Ohio Congressman was constrained to admit that "the first bitter controversy he [Grosvenor] had had as a member upon the floor, was with that distinguished gentleman, then a colleague from the State of Ohio, upon what is called the merit system." It is worth while to recall this controversy, which occurred in the House on the 24th of April, 1890. Mr. Houk, a Republican member from Tennessee, while the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill was under consideration, moved to strike out the entire section making provision for the expenses of the Civil-Service Commission, on the ground that it was "an impracticable machine," and that "the system was inconsistent with the genius and spirit of our institutions." Grosvenor supported this motion, asserting that "this law does not operate as a reform of the civil service of the country," and repeating the familiar falsehood that, "under the ægis of this system, under its protecting influence, there are a large number of utterly incompetent clerks in the public offices of this country, held there by the fundamental, underlying principle of this system and this practice which we are assailing."

After various spoilsmen had had their say, Mr. McKinley, who was then chairman of the ways and means committee, and so "leader of the House," closed the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

debate in a brief but telling speech, which was followed by the rejection of the motion to starve out the Commission, 128 to 61. Mr. McKinley began by saying that his only regret was that the committee on appropriations had not given the Commission all that it asked, for the improvement and extension of the system, and proceeded to declare that, "if the Republican party of this country is pledged to any one thing more than another, it is to the maintenance of the civil-service law and its efficient execution; not only that, but to its enlargement and its further application to the public service." In last week's debate Grosvenor spoke of "Pendleton and the Democratic party having perfected this patent-medicine system." Something of the sort was said in the discussion seven years ago, and Mr. McKinley pointed out that the law was put upon the statute-book by Republican votes, and that every national platform of the party since its enactment had declared not only in favor of its continuance in full vigor, but in favor of its enlargement so as to apply more generally to the public service. He maintained that "this is not alone the declaration and purpose of the Republican party, but it is in accordance with its highest and best sentiment—aye, more, it is sustained by the best sentiment of the whole country, Republican and Democratic alike"; and he concluded with these emphatic remarks:

"Mr. Chairman, the Republican party must take no backward step. The merit system is here, and it is here to stay; and we may just as well understand and accept it now, and give our attention to correcting the abuses, if any exist, and improving the law wherever it can be done to the advantage of the public service."

If Mr. McKinley the Congressman felt in this way about the matter in 1890, we may be sure that Mr. McKinley the President will feel far more strongly in 1897, when he has been nearly killed by the onset of spoilsmen before he reached the White House.

If those Republican Senators who voted a few days ago for Chandler's international conference bill had any idea that it was possible to patch up a compromise with the silverites, all such notions must have been dispelled by the manifesto put out by Teller, Dubois, and the other seceders who supported Bryan last year. They say that for years events "have been forcing upon the country, with ever-increasing definiteness and emphasis, the necessity of reform in our monetary system as respects both the coinage of metallic money and the regulation and control of credit currency." They say further that they cannot follow those who have "usurped the dominion of the party into a shameless abandonment of American interests and the tyranny of an alien money system." The grammar of this deliverance is dubious, but its meaning is not. It signifies that the silver men will have no part nor lot with the Republican party hereafter, and that all efforts made to conciliate them will be completely thrown away. There never was any reason to imagine anything different. When Teller, Dubois & Co. took themselves out of the national Republican convention, and gave their support to Bryan, and brought to him the electoral votes of all the silver-mining States, they proclaimed in the loudest possible tones that they would have nothing short of free coinage at 16 to 1. They have now added to their programme, it seems, "the regulation and control of the credit currency," whatever that may mean. That it means further deterioration of the currency may be inferred from the company they keep. All experience shows that one downhill step leads to another. The real leaders of the movement to depreciate the money standard are the Populists, and it will be simply impossible for Teller and his followers to resist the next step toward the Ocala platform if they ever succeed in getting the metallic dollar shaved down to the minimum corresponding to their present desires.

Shortly before the meeting of the Indianapolis Conference, the nucleus of an organization called the National Sound-Money League was started in New York and Chicago simultaneously. In Chicago an organization of nearly the same character had existed during the political campaign, called the Honest-Money League, which had contributed much to the defeat of the Bryan ticket in Illinois and the adjoining States. After the election, the leading members of the League, which had only a temporary and local character, decided to unite with men of similar aims in other parts of the country to form a permanent working force to carry on the fight for the gold standard so successfully begun in the campaign. A similar group of men was brought together in New York at the same time, all of whom coöperated with, and some of whom were delegates to, the Indianapolis Conference. After the adjournment of the Conference the work of extending the organization was taken up and vigorously pushed, Mr. E. V. Smalley of St. Paul, Minn., taking the laboring oar as secretary and missionary-in-chief. It is worth mention that Mr. L. J. Gage was one of the Chicago members until he was designated for the office of Secretary of the Treasury. Some of the results of this movement were made manifest by the meeting last week at the Chamber of Commerce, where delegates came together from many distant States, including North Dakota and the State of Washington, to perfect the organization. The meeting was fortunate also in having the coöperation of Congressman Fowler of New Jersey, who has gained a wide reputation as an indefatigable worker and agitator for the gold standard and currency reform. Mr. Carl Schurz, Mr. Edward Atkinson, Mr. George E. Leighton of St. Louis, and other sound-money veterans were present and took an active part in the proceedings. Mr. Leighton was elected President of the organization, and Mr. A. B. Hepburn Treasurer, Mr. Smalley continuing as Secretary. Those who have kept close watch of the sound-money fight since it became definite and pronounced, will agree that no better selections could have been made.

The capabilities of 450 men chosen by universal suffrage and the boss system to decide important business questions are freshly illustrated by the failure of either house of Congress to pass any bill in reference to the Pacific Railroad subsidy debt. This question has been before Congress fifteen years. The Government has had five members of the board of directors of the Union Pacific, who have not been idle. They have presented this question to Congress from year to year, and have made recommendations with great regularity. There has been one investigation by a commission not composed of Congressmen, and the amount of testimony they took was appalling. There have been special investigations by committees of Congress itself and reports without number, and yet, whenever a definite measure has been brought forward, it has been voted down after a battle over the burial-place of the Crédit Mobilier and the members thereof. The last bill—the last one possible before foreclosure—met no better fate than its predecessors. Nor is there the least reason to hope for better results in the next Congress if the foreclosure suit could be postponed. Considering the ineptitude and helplessness of Congress in dealing with the question, the offer of the syndicate to pay about $47,000,000 to the Government for its second lien was extremely liberal and a great streak of luck. We do not say that anybody was particularly to blame for the failure of Congress to do anything. The case simply proves again that 450 men elected by ballot are not qualified to conduct large business transactions. What would have happened if the proposition that the Government should take the roads and operate them had been adopted?

It is reported that Gov. Black has been consulting with various persons, including several well-known advocates of civil-service reform, and has about reached the conclusion to discourage all efforts of the Progressives and other spoilsmen to take the "starch" out of the law. One would say, after the recent decision of the Appellate Division, that a man who was fit to be Governor of the State would not need to consult anybody about his course in this matter. Common sense is all that

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

is necessary to show that acquiescence in the inevitable is the only safe policy. The courts, including the highest in the State, have taken the position that the civil-service law, as it is upheld by the Constitution, is self-executing in the most rigorous form demanded by the reformers themselves. There is no escape from this, and the Governor who should try to escape from it would be something of a curiosity. There is only one way by which the Progressives can realize their hopes, and that is by securing the adoption of a constitutional amendment repealing the amendment on this subject adopted in 1894. That will be a task of sufficient magnitude to absorb all their energies for several years.

The outcome of Senator Raines's valiant determination to reform his own liquor law is somewhat amusing. He held an investigation, it will be remembered, of the law's workings in this and other cities, and accompanied his discoveries with a great deal of loud talk about the heroic remedies which he was going to devise to repair the law's defects. A perfect reign of terror for liquor-dealers was proclaimed as soon as Raines got to work in the Legislature. Now it is said that the law will not be changed at all, because Raines has been informed that the Republican politicians of the large cities will not permit the present condition of things to be disturbed. They are satisfied with the workings of the law; the liquor-dealers are satisfied; the Germans get their Sunday beer; and dire political consequences are threatened if any efforts be made to disturb the general content. The Raines hotels which have grown up under the law, and which have dissipated the terrors of a possible Puritanic Sunday, will remain in spite of all the loud threats of Raines to abolish them. Why? Because the Platt machine has been satisfied by most conclusive arguments that the present condition of things in the liquor world is as perfect as could be desired. Far be it from us to suggest that this happy result is the direct outcome of the noise which Raines made.

The difficulties of making work on public improvements meet the demands of "labor" have been freshly set forth by Superintendent Aldridge of the Public Works Department. He is engaged in operations under the act appropriating $9,000,000 for improvement of the canals, and he finds it impossible to satisfy the workingmen. Unskilled laborers receive 12½ cents an hour, or $6 for a week of eight-hour days, and most of the work is done so far from the homes of the employees that they have to pay two-thirds of their wages for board. Delegations of laboring men have repeatedly asked Mr. Aldridge to force contractors to pay higher wages, but he has been "compelled to say to all that the rate of wages constitutes a question which must be settled between employers and employees." In short, the Superintendent is constrained to make this discouraging admission:

> "One of the arguments used in favor of the $9,000,000 canal-improvement act was that this work would induce prosperity and afford relief where it was most needed. Up to the present time the work in this regard has been a disappointment."

All that Mr. Aldridge can suggest in the way of improvement is the passage of a law fixing a minimum price which shall be paid to unskilled laborers employed on State work, which he suggests should not be less than 15 cents per hour. This simply means that people who work for the ruling rate of wages in private employment shall be taxed to pay more than the ruling rate to those working under the State.

Commissioners Parker and Grant of the Police Board are clearly determined to show the public how thoroughly vicious the bi-partisan system is. Their conduct last week reached the farthest limit yet touched in this direction. They voted to uphold the Chief in an act of gross insubordination, thus taking a position which makes anything like strict discipline in the force impossible. The Chief had spoken with disrespect of the conduct of the Commissioners, who are his superiors—whether what he said was true or not does not matter; he added to this offence by refusing to make either excuse or apology. When the question of censuring him for his conduct and making charges against him came before the board, Messrs. Grant and Parker voted against it, dividing the board on the subject and virtually upholding the Chief. This proceeding was all the more inexcusable because the Mayor and Corporation Counsel had expressed the opinion that charges should be made against him. As usual in such cases, Parker and Grant made no explanation of their course, voting in silence in the same way that machine dummies always do. They are acting upon a general policy of opposing everything that Messrs. Roosevelt and Andrews propose, because the latter Commissioners are seeking to put the force on a basis completely removed from politics. Parker is doing this in accordance with his life-long practice, and Grant is helping him because the Republican machine has put pressure upon him which he is too much of a weakling to resist.

The Newark free public library is the first, so far as the public knows, to take a stand against the degradation of the press by refusing longer to admit to its reading-room two of the worst offenders among the daily newspapers of the country. The trustees, by a unanimous vote, have approved the report of the reading-room committee recommending this course, the committee having been stirred up to action by the librarian, who had been impressed by the demoralizing influence which an institution founded in the interest of education and morality was exerting when it allowed a mass of filth to be daily presented for inspection. The example of the Newark institution ought to be imitated by all library and reading-room associations throughout the country, and extended to all newspapers which are lowering the tone of the community, wherever published. People often lament the low estate of the press, and then ask what can be done about it. The Newark people have shown. Every self-respecting person can use his influence to have indecent newspapers banished from institutions of every sort which have reading-rooms.

In cool cynicism and jaunty self-sufficiency, Mr. Cecil Rhodes surpasses any state prisoner ever put on trial in England—for his examination by the Parliamentary committee is practically a trial. He convicts himself of deep conspiracy against a friendly state, and of lying unblushingly to cover up his tracks, and his only defence is, "Just look at the dazzling stakes for which I was playing!" Rhodes is no doubt fortunate in the time at which his examination is taking place, as well as most skilful in the way he plays upon popular passions. Friction with the Transvaal has again become serious, and President Krüger is again appealing to the Lord of Hosts against his enemies. All this plays into Rhodes's hand beautifully, and he appears to be justified in expecting to be let off with a warning to make his treason successful next time, so that it may no longer be treason. The Prince of Wales does not for nothing ostentatiously shake hands with a man in Rhodes's position.

The London *Economist*, which is very nervous, both politically and financially, over the Cretan imbroglio, enunciates, in its issue of February 20, a great truth when it says that "even Turks have difficulty in massacring superior force." It argues from this that the Greeks would be perfectly right in withdrawing from Crete, inasmuch as the strong naval and military demonstration made by the Powers would necessarily prevent the Turkish garrisons from murdering the inhabitants. But we infer that the perverse Greeks will insist on turning the argument the other way. They will subscribe to the doctrine of superior force, but will declare that, so far as Crete is concerned, they mean to be that force. The statement of Prime Minister Delyannis on Monday seems to leave no doubt on that point. Greece acknowledges herself a small nation, but puts the moral force of a great nation into her protests against Turkish misgovernment and inhumanity. Whatever the diplomats may say or do, there is ground for the Prime Minister's assertion that "all great peoples" sympathize with Greece.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

MR. CLEVELAND'S PRESIDENCY.

MR. CLEVELAND first became an important political figure in 1881, when he was elected Mayor of Buffalo. He retires from public life to-day, having made a deeper mark upon the history of his time than any save the greatest of his predecessors. Little as it was then suspected, we can see now that there were circumstances connected with his selection for this first office which pointed to the possibility of the higher destiny in store for him. The office itself was that of the elective administrative head of a corruptly governed community; he was chosen as a party man, yet his work was to attack and frustrate partisan misgovernment. The weapon he found waiting for him was the veto; his first characteristic words, "This is a time for plain speech," were uttered in refusing to sign a legislative measure which he told its promoters was "the culmination of a most barefaced, impudent, and shameless scheme to betray the interests of the people and worse than squander the public money." Plain speech, courage, and honesty in similar situations of ever-increasing importance are what has made him a great President.

His career was connected with a movement which antedated his appearance by several years. As early as 1868, side by side with the agitation for civil-service reform, a popular longing began to make itself distinctly manifest for a President fitted to be a leader against "the politicians," the shifting, obscure, ignorant, and often corrupt body of placemen who, indifferent to the real demands of the country, were learning to manage its affairs in the interest of themselves or of schemes which would not bear the light, and paving the way for what we know in its perfected form as "Boss Government." Such a leader we had lost in Lincoln and were not destined to find in Grant. Such a leader the Liberal Republican movement of 1872 was intended to bring forward, but it resulted on one side in the fiasco of the nomination of Horace Greeley, and on the other in the unfortunate second term of Grant, and the domination of a Senatorial cabal, threatening by means of a third term to control the Government in perpetuity. Public opinion forced Hayes in 1876 upon the Republicans as it made Tilden the Democratic nominee. But neither Tilden nor Hayes thoroughly represented the ideas rapidly gaining ground.

Those ideas, put in a few words, were that the crying need of the country was, not more laws or new political ventures, but honest and intelligent administration of the Government as it stood; that this the politicians would never give us; and that we consequently needed a leader who would fight the popular battle against them. It was not clear then, as it is now, that the citadel of corrupt intrigue and abuse was in the great coördinated nominating machinery, the complicated congeries of primaries and conventions throughout the country, tending more and more, through standing committees, to become tyrannical political corporations. Perhaps it is fortunate that we did not clearly foresee what we have since experienced; perhaps if we had we should have despaired of the result. What was felt, rather than understood, was that the only way in which the system could be attacked was through the Executive—most effectively of all, by the most powerful of all executives, at Washington. That this feeling was a sound national instinct could now be proved by the subsequent course of events—by the steady increase in power of the Executives in the various States, by the general contempt which has overtaken the State Legislatures; by the constitutional movement which has steadily reduced their powers; by the rise in influence in great cities of mayors and other administrative officers; by the wrenching of the national civil service out of the congressional grasp. In 1880 the only thing that could be clearly seen was that if the institutions of the country were to be saved from the corruption which dogs the path of democracy as assassination does that of tyranny, relief must come from some one who had received his actual training in honest and orderly administration; some one who, even at Washington, would find in constitutional government nothing but a simple deed of trust.

No doubt it would be a mistake to imagine the career of Mr. Cleveland a realization of the ideal of the Independents of 1872. The gentleman whom they hoped to make President was a trained public servant, a publicist, an astute diplomat, whose advancement had come to him through long service. Mr. Cleveland became an important public man without much previous training, and really acquired his knowledge of government through governing. He has always taken pains to avow himself a strong party man, and has become a non-partisan President almost against his will. When he declared, on becoming Mayor of Buffalo, that "the affairs of the city should be conducted, as far as possible, upon the same principles as a good business man manages his private concerns," he did not put this forward as a novelty, but as sound historic party doctrine, though when his party followers found that he meant it, and was actually vetoing every exorbitant and illegal appropriation, they stood aghast. When, in the ensuing fall, he was elected Governor over Folger by nearly 200,000 majority, his tremendous victory no doubt confirmed him for the time in his view of the subject. When he went on foot to the Capitol on New Year's day, it was not a piece of clap-trap, but the act of a man of real simplicity of character and tastes, who was thinking of himself chiefly as a follower of a great party leader of the past. His governorship was intended to be a Democratic governorship. His vetoes were intended to be Democratic vetoes. It was probably not until he reached Washington in 1885 that he perceived that, to the great bulk of the politicians of his own as well as of the opposite side, party meant office and nothing else. With characteristic caution he reminded his supporters that even faithful party service cannot be "always rewarded by appointment to office," and merely promised a faithful enforcement of the civil-service law, by means of which he was in a few years to give the death-blow to the entire spoils system.

During his first term he hoped that he might revive the party glories of the past. He proclaimed in 1885 the disaster involved in silver coinage because his conviction was that Democrats could not be inflationists; he insisted in 1887 on a tariff for revenue because he knew that Democrats could not be protectionists. He did not then conceive it possible that the whole vast machinery of his party might itself be swallowed up by corrupt interests. In 1888, speaking of this period, he said: "I knew then that abuses and extravagances had crept into the management of public affairs; but I did not know their enormous power, nor the tenacity of their grasp. I knew then something of the littleness of partisan obstruction, but I did not know how bitter, how reckless, and how shameless it could be."

Mr. Cleveland's first administration showed that we had at last got a President of the first rank, fully capable of dealing with the subjects of finance and revenue urgently demanding attention, a man of singular courage and independence of character, ready to confront the enemies of the country as his own. It is a common fallacy to suppose that those who wish the support of a democratic community must get it by time-serving and flattery, by glib appeals to prejudice and passion, by cowardly compromise with every base plot that is afoot. The example of Cleveland, supported for fifteen years in his struggle for good government by constant popular majorities (for the defeat of free silver in the last election was a vindication for him), is alone enough to stamp the theory as false. For a popular leader the one indispensable quality is that which is always lacking among politicians dependent on place for their support. What has made him for twelve years the inevitable representative of the American people has been the fact that he could not be made afraid.

His two administrations have been so crowded with events of importance that we can barely touch upon a few of them. In foreign affairs the principles avowed by him, and usually acted upon, have been eminently pacific. On several occasions, however, he has, in order to gain support at home, shown the readiness to

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

make use of a defiant tone abroad, which his warmest friends could only regret. The attempt to force Mr. Keily upon a court at which he could not be received, the summary dismissal of Lord Sackville, the demand for authority to retaliate on Canada in 1888 because the fisheries treaty had failed in the Senate, and the Venezuela message, seemed too much like efforts at a belated imitation of Jacksonian barbarism to gain the lasting admiration of the America of to-day. His success in getting England to arbitrate with Venezuela does not justify his threat of war, and his introduction of the Monroe Doctrine into a question with which it had nothing to do, instead of being an advantage to this country, can but prove a source of danger. On the other hand, the treaty negotiated in 1884 to establish a protectorate of Nicaragua was withdrawn from the Senate in a message which might have been written by Washington. His repudiation of the Hawaiian revolution and movement for annexation was an act of simple but very courageous international justice, made necessary by the fact that our minister had taken an active part in the rising against the Government to which he was accredited. His enforcement of the neutrality laws during the Cuban troubles and his support of American interests in Cuba have been beyond praise, and his recent message on Cuba shows that he has done his utmost to secure from Spain guarantees of justice and humanity in its dealings with the island. If the fisheries difficulty with England is not flagrant, the fact is due to a *modus vivendi* established through his efforts, while the general arbitration treaty with England is so great a triumph for peace that, even unratified, it is likely to render war impossible.

Mr. Cleveland's domestic administration is called a failure only by the enemies who have done their best to make it so. With a Congress legislating in the interest of inflation, protection, and waste, it is impossible for a President to do much more than make the issue plain. There is no real evidence anywhere that his conduct to-day is not as popular throughout the country as it has been all along. Even in 1888, though the electoral machinery gave the Presidency to Harrison, Cleveland's vote at the polls remained the largest in the field. Two years later the country had repudiated the McKinley bill and the wanton waste of Congress, and in 1893 Mr. Cleveland came into office, still a party man trying to revive lost party ideals, but, besides this, the President of a whole people face to face with the misgovernment and corruption entrenched in its Legislature. When he forced the repeal of the Sherman silver-purchase act; when he killed the Bland bill for coining the seigniorage; when again and again he urged real tariff reform; when he vetoed job after job; when he quelled disorder in the strike of 1894, and when, above all, he maintained the credit of the Treasury throughout the world, in defiance of partisan and press fury, he obtained success in defeat.

It is a noticeable fact, in a period in which politicians generally seem to have lost the art of forcible and direct speech, that the few pithy phrases that have caught the attention and approval of the public have either come from him or been occasioned by him. The best of them have not been witty epigrams, but homely maxims, the truth of which no one can deny, but which all mankind find it so hard to act upon. That public office is a public trust, and that a government which undertook (because people supported it) to "support the people" would be doomed, are statements that become eloquent as the challenge of a bold man to those who are betraying trusts and "corrupting the poor with the money of the rich." "We love him for the enemies he has made," was the vigorous expression of an undeniable and most significant fact.

The most frequent criticism upon Mr. Cleveland's character from those who, without being openly hostile, have tried to justify their want of admiration by a sceptical analysis, has been that his public life has been marked by what are called the commonplace virtues. Courage, a love of truth, common sense, and integrity he is admitted to have; but where, his critics ask, is his greatness? What brilliant schemes has he advocated? What remarkable intelligence has he shown? Why, if he is a great man, does he go out of office amid the wreck of the party of which he was the chosen leader? Where is the tact, the power of managing and inspiring a following, which is the true mark of statesmanship? We have endeavored to suggest what we believe to be the true answer to these questions; but that the virtues which are conceded to him can be declared commonplace, shows a ludicrous misapprehension. It is because courage and truth and common sense and integrity are rare qualities in the world that, when they appear together in one character, they give their possessor such astonishing and seemingly inexplicable importance. Work, however done, may always be done more skilfully; but those who think, if there are any such, that Mr. Cleveland could have done his without exciting ferocious and increasing opposition, forget what it has been. As Governor and President he has killed a mass of special legislation—in other words, of jobs—which has meant the loss of hundreds of millions of money that their promoters would have filched from the public. He has stood alone between a rich and busy community and a horde of desperate plunderers, and beat them off. Not only this, but he has maintained the public credit in the teeth of a legislature most of whose members were perfectly willing to betray it to advance their own selfish interests. Where other statesmen have left behind them a monument of wise laws passed, he has left a monument of foolish and base laws prevented. Such work cannot be done by means of tact.

As Mr. Cleveland retires to private life, not one of the public enemies he has made his own but will heave a sigh of relief. Not an unjust claimant but will feel his hopes rise, not a boss but will rub his hands with delight over what he thinks his improving chance of plunder and patronage. But Mr. Cleveland's public service has had one result which getting rid of him cannot now undo. The long contest between him and his opponents has made clear the real nature of the opinion of the country, on almost every important public question, in such a way that it cannot be mistaken by any President who desires popular favor. His present successor could not have been elected but for an appeal to the same public opinion which for twelve years trusted in Cleveland, and was trusted by Cleveland.

MR. HOBART'S OPPORTUNITY.

THE inaugural address which Mr. McKinley will deliver to-day can be discounted in advance. Unless it differs from all foregoing addresses of the kind, it will be intensely patriotic in tone; it will doubtless declare for national good faith and a secure and stable currency; it will breathe a spirit of peace at home and abroad; it will very likely foreshadow a policy of increased taxation in order to increase revenue. But it cannot, in the nature of the case, touch directly upon the great menace to the new President's administration and to the country. It cannot speak of the sullen, brute force in our public life which has thrown itself athwart the execution of any rational policy. In other words, it cannot tell the truth about the United States Senate. But the man who will take up the gavel as presiding officer of the Senate on March 4 can do what Mr. McKinley cannot do. By what he says and what he does he has an opportunity to electrify the nation. He may easily make his five minutes' inaugural the great event of the day, and outline a policy of legislative reform which must be executed before any other reform whatever can be attained.

In place of the ordinary meaningless remarks, Vice-President Hobart might say something like this to-day:

"Senators: My predecessor, on taking this chair four years ago, characterized you as 'the most august legislative assembly on earth.' He himself would now doubtless give worlds to withdraw that phrase. At any rate it is my duty, sent here as I am by the direct vote of the people, to tell you that you are nothing of the kind. No other legislative body in a free country is so much despised and at the same time dreaded as you are. Abroad you are pointed to as a horrible example

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of a once great assembly degenerate. At home you are considered a standing and deadly obstacle to political and financial reform, a threat to business, an enemy of peace—in short, the one great danger-point in our body politic on which the eyes of our alarmed citizens are fixed. It is my solemn duty to notify you that you must set your house in order lest the popular wrath find some way either to mend or end you. Another four years, like the last, of steady affront to the best sentiment of the nation, of aid and comfort given to agitators and incendiaries, of shameless trifling with the country's good name and as shameless speculating in the stock markets, of dull, insensate opposition to all political progress and political purity, will fill up the cup of your iniquity. Beware lest an outraged people press it to your own lips.

"But it is my duty also to be specific as to the nature of the chief evil in which you are engulfed, and as to the remedy which I propose to apply. You have deliberately put yourself in the power of the worst men in your body. One Senator, strong in prejudices or self-interest, with front and lungs of brass, is able to withstand and defy all the rest. You have justified and tolerated this outrage on the ground of the dignity of the Senate, on the ground of the courtesy due a fellow-Senator. But what you have really done is to make the dignity of the Senate a hissing and a byword, to make the courtesy due Senators something lower than the honor which exists among thieves. As far as it is in my power, I propose to put an end to this monstrous abuse. It will be necessary for me to enforce your rules, but there are also certain general parliamentary rules, essential to the civilized dispatch of public business, which I shall likewise enforce. One of these is the duty of a presiding officer to make a debater speak to the question. When the Indian appropriation bill is before the Senate, I shall call any Senator to order who proceeds to discuss a war with Spain. I shall not allow a four hours' rehearsal of the crime of '73 to be made under guise of discussing the bill for regulating the Congressional Library. Nor shall I permit the laxity of the Senate rules to defeat the end of all rules—the bringing of the question to a vote. When talk becomes evidently and defiantly obstructive, I shall ask the support of a majority of the Senate in putting the question. By co-operating with me in these simple and imperative reforms, Senators, you will do much to save the session from wreck, the country from peril, and yourselves from yet deeper ignominy. What is the pleasure of the Senate?"

The first effect of such an address on the Senate would no doubt be painful. Senatorial dignity would fall a-shrieking. The courtesy of the Senate would be more than usually indistinguishable from ruffianly blackguardism. But the country? Would it not rise in delight and hope at the sight of a firm, strong man taking an inveterate public abuse by the throat? Vice-President Hobart would not get his needed support in the Senate the first day, nor the second, nor the fortieth. But in time it would be his. He could insist day after day that Senators should not beat the air, and though the beating would be allowed to go on for a while, public opinion would at last compel a majority of the Senate to join with him in suppressing it. With a resolute presiding officer exposing and rebuking wilful obstruction of the public business, it would at last curl up in the aisles of the Senate and die.

Mr. Hobart's opportunity is great. He is an experienced presiding officer, having been Speaker of the New Jersey Assembly and twice President of the New Jersey Senate. He is now the constitutional presiding officer of the United States Senate. Let him really preside. By doing so he would rescue the vice-presidency from its traditional obscurity and helplessness, and make of it a great and beneficent office. He could easily make himself the most popular man in the country. Better than that, he could contribute much towards removing a national disgrace and danger, and point the way out of the legislative paralysis which now threatens to make all policies failures and all administrations impotent.

THE SANGUILLY AFFAIR.

It is hard to speak in moderate terms of the display of reckless demagogism and incapacity which the Senate made of itself on Thursday. The day before, the committee on foreign relations reported a resolution in these terms:

"Resolved, That the Government of the United States demands the immediate and unconditional release of Julio Sanguilly, a citizen of the United States, from imprisonment under the charges that are pending and that are being prosecuted against him in the military and civil courts of Cuba upon alleged grounds of rebellion and kidnapping, contrary to the treaty rights of each of said governments, and in violation of the law of nations. And the President of the United States is requested to communicate this resolution to the Government of Spain, and to demand of that Government such compensation as he shall deem just for the imprisonment and sufferings of Julio Sanguilly."

Although the public have learned, during recent years, to make large allowances for the eccentricities of this committee, and not to take them too seriously, yet the sober and peremptory tone of this resolution made an impression on the public mind, more especially as Senator Sherman, the chairman of the committee and prospective Secretary of State, declared that the committee was unanimous in reporting the resolution, and that he hoped the Senate would take it up the following day. These remarks gained additional force from the fact that the end of the session was only a few days distant, and its necessary business was unusually behindhand. In view of the solemnity of tone in which the demand upon Spain was to be made, and the possible consequences of it, stocks declined, the confidence of business men was shaken, and most people went to bed that night with sore hearts.

The next day it appeared that Sanguilly was not a citizen of the United States, or at all events that nobody was able to show that he was such, and further that he had been pardoned by Spain before the Senate committee adopted its resolution. As soon as these facts transpired in the Senate chamber, Senator Sherman was seized with a sudden desire to pass an appropriation bill that had been laid aside in order to take up the Sanguilly resolution. This was altogether too tame and pusillanimous a course for the blatherskite majority. These, led by Morgan, Allen, Lodge, Frye, and Mills, were not to be put off by any such makeshifts as the non-citizenship of Sanguilly or his release from a Spanish dungeon. As to his citizenship, he had naturalization papers, and those were sacred, like the American flag, until proved false by conclusive testimony. Senator Hoar, on the other hand, pointed out the fact that the record of the case showed that Sanguilly had spent the five years next succeeding his declaration of intention to become a citizen of the United States, in Cuba, and in arms against the Spanish Government; whereas our naturalization laws require that he should have spent them in the United States in order to acquire citizenship. That fact did not alter the sublime purpose of Lodge to make the eagle scream. He did not know whether Sanguilly's naturalization was fraudulent or not. What he did know was that if Sanguilly held a certificate of citizenship from the Queen of England and he had been incarcerated in like manner, "England would have had him out of his prison, and would have had him surrendered at once, if it had taken her whole fleet and all of her army to do it." Indeed! But England would have learned the facts in the case first, and not have put herself in the humiliating attitude of demanding the release of a man who was not her citizen and who had been released already. She would have taken account, too, of the peculiar fact that Sanguilly's change of citizenship was a manifest sham and pretence, having for its purpose the protection of the sovereignty of a foreign country in which he had no intention of residing or performing any of the duties incumbent on a citizen.

But more scandalous revelations were to come. Secretary Olney once more quietly took the public into his confidence and left senatorial intriguers dangling. This time it was Senator Sherman who was hung up for the admiration of the country. In his capacity as chairman of the Senate committee on foreign relations, Mr. Sherman was confidentially informed

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

by the Secretary of State on February 17 that Sanguilly was on the point of being released. Mr. Olney added that the matter was of "a somewhat delicate nature," and said that "any public discussion of the case in the Senate" could not but injuriously affect the flattering prospect of Sanguilly's pardon. Five days later, Mr. Sherman joined the other members of his committee in precipitating the public clamor about Sanguilly—in other words, in doing his best to keep in jail the man whom he was professing to cry to Heaven to get out of jail. So far as known, Senator Sherman did not give the committee or the Senate a hint of the information conveyed to him. Why he did not, it became his instant duty to explain. Did he forget Mr. Olney's letter? If he did, all that has been said about his mental decay is more than justified, and McKinley must be shivering to think of the man he has chosen for his Secretary of State. If, on the other hand, the chairman of the committee on foreign relations deliberately suppressed this most vital communication from the State Department, it was a most gross and shocking offence, which of itself would have warranted McKinley—even at the eleventh hour—in choosing another Secretary of State.

Amid all this mock fury and imbecility, not a particle of evidence had been exhibited that the rights of American citizens in Cuba had not been watched over with vigilant zeal by Secretary Olney. Indeed, the extraordinary thing is that Mr. Olney should have been suspected of lack of vigor in standing up for American rights abroad. Brusque energy has characterized his entire administration of the State Department. We have had no such hard-hitting man in charge of foreign affairs for years, if ever. Yet the aged Senators, in their ardent desire for a war, forgot how he left them all gasping with astonishment at his Venezuelan audacity, and thought, or affected to think, him as nerveless as the Jingo papers painted him. Mr. Hitt of the House committee on foreign affairs happily did not share this delusion, but kept himself, as he should, in touch with Secretary Olney, and smothered every firebrand sent to his committee. The legacy of trouble which Mr. McKinley will receive in this Cuban business will be left him, not by Secretary Olney or President Cleveland, but by the passionate and reckless Senate. That body has become the dangerous explosive of our public life. Mr. McKinley will have spokesmen and a party support in the Senate, as Mr. Cleveland has not had of late; but the Ethiopian is not going to change his skin suddenly on March 4, and any sudden cause of friction with Spain, any naval accident on the Florida coast, may set the Senate dragging the President into a war before he knows it.

SIGNS OF THE TIMES.

THE Southern farmers are again showing that it is not the principle of combination to which they are opposed, but the use of that principle by any other class of people than farmers—except "organized labor." They denounce bitterly any union on the part of those who buy their cotton to raise the price of products manufactured from it, but they earnestly advocate the adoption of measures to make the manufacturers pay higher prices for the staple. The President of the Cotton-Growers' Association has issued an address calling conventions of the Texas farmers at Waco March 8, of those in the Mississippi valley at Memphis March 10, and of those east of the Mississippi at Augusta March 15, to secure "concert of action," as "by a systematic and judicious marketing of our crops we can realize inestimable benefits that never can be secured permanently otherwise." The method urged upon the cotton-growers is that which is so bitterly complained of when applied by the cotton-manufacturers—a restriction of the output in order to secure higher prices. "Destroy the annual surplus of cotton," is the watchword. "You will be better off with a 7,000,000-bale crop selling at 10 cents, supplemented by ample food crops, than with a 10,000,000-bale crop selling at 5 cents."

The farmers in the South Carolina Legislature gave on Thursday another illustration of the tendency of all farmers toward class legislation, by passing through the lower branch a bill requiring everybody except farmers and laborers to get a license to work. The proposed law provides that "every person, firm, company, or corporation engaged or intending to engage in business in this State shall obtain on or before May 1, 1897, a license." Nearly a column of fine type in a newspaper is required to give the list of businesses and the amount of the licenses, and the list is full of queer features, as, that "artists, ambrotypists, photographists, etc.," must pay 25 cents for each thousand inhabitants of the place where they "do business"; barbers, 25 cents for each chair in the shop; dealers in any article of merchandise, each $1 for the first $10,000 or less of goods, etc., sold, and 25 cents for each additional thousand sold; fruit and peanut dealers, with stand on street, $1; lawyers, physicians, dentists, chemists, $5 each, without regard to their income or the population of their places of residence; hand laundries, 50 cents. But while the poor country doctor must pay $5, the richest farmer pays nothing; and while the poor laundry-woman must pay 50 cents, the best remunerated laborer pays nothing.

The system of licensing not only is grossly unjust in exempting from its operation the great majority of the people, but also appears to be plainly unconstitutional. The new Constitution of the State authorizes the Legislature to provide for "a *graduated* license on occupations and businesses," but the bill which has passed the lower branch disregards the principle of graduation almost entirely. It is true that "artists, ambrotypists, photographists, etc.," are taxed at the rate of 25 cents for each thousand inhabitants of the place where they "do business," and that dealers in merchandise selling over $10,000 worth of goods a year must pay 25 cents for each additional thousand sold; but all lawyers and physicians are mulcted in the uniform sum of $5, whether their income be $500 or $5,000, every hand laundry must pay 50 cents whether it is a small one run by a poor woman or a large one that does a profitable business, and so of many other occupations. This is only another illustration of the familiar fact that few legislators nowadays care enough about the Constitution even to read it and find out what it allows.

The whole assumption underlying this system of licensing occupations and businesses, as well as the anti-Trust law of Texas, both of which exempt farmers from their operation, is that the agricultural class of the population is entitled to special privileges. It was high time that this assumption should be taken in hand by an authority whose words would command respect, and we are glad to see that Judge Swayne of the United States District Court did this, in his recent decision annulling the Texas anti-Trust law for unconstitutionality. The Judge declared that a careful study of the act showed that "it aims to favor the agricultural class, and is against the merchant and mechanic and all the others, without either reason or justice," and said:

> "We are familiar with the duties of the farmer, and the cares and trials of his business life, and appreciate highly the customary compliments paid by mankind to the rural yeomanry of the land; he has been justly lauded for his integrity and for the independence and importance of his calling; without the products of his toil people cannot live, nor society endure; yet, what is there about it all to entitle him to the privilege of combining in restraint of trade as to those articles he produces, while his neighbor, the storekeeper, and mechanics are precluded therefrom?"

It is, of course, class legislation of the most odious sort when a majority of farmers in a State impose taxes upon men engaged in all other occupations, and a similar majority in another State forbid combinations to raise prices on the part of all people except themselves and "organized labor." The manufacturers of cotton may not combine to raise the price of cloth, but the growers of cotton may combine to raise the price of the raw material from which the cloth is made; the sellers of meat may not combine to raise its price, but the raisers of live stock may combine to raise the price of their cattle—to state such propositions is enough to show the gross injustice of a law which would permit such discriminations. Judge Swayne quoted two striking passages bearing on this very point, which he said are "almost prophetic in

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

some respects," from decisions rendered by Judge Catron of the United States Supreme Court many years ago:

"The rights of every citizen must stand or fall by the same rule of law that governs every other member of the body politic under similar circumstances; and every partial or private law which directly proposes to destroy or affect individual rights, or does the same thing by affording remedies leading to similar consequences, is unconstitutional and void. Were it otherwise, odious individuals or corporate bodies would be governed by one law, the most of the community, and those who made the law, by another; whereas a like and general law affecting the whole community equally could not have been passed.

"The idea of the people, through their representatives, making laws whereby are swept away the life, liberty, and property of one or a few citizens, by which neither the representatives nor their other constituents are willing to be bound, is too odious to be tolerated in any government where freedom has a name."

THE HILL OF TARA.

DUBLIN, 1897.

OF those who have heard of the famous Hill of Tara, few there are who could say where it is situate, and still fewer what is to be seen upon it. In Ireland, at least, everybody knows Moore's verses, which a beautiful air has made popular; and every patriotic Irishman, wherever he may dwell, is held bound to feel a throb of sentiment at the name of the ancient capital of his ill-starred country. But even in Ireland the visitors to Tara seem to be extremely scarce, and in travelling through Ireland I have found only two or three persons who could tell me anything about a spot which is much more remarkable from the part it plays in the traditions of prehistoric times than any place in England or in Scotland belonging to the legendary period.

Tara is, however, easily accessible, being only some three miles from a railway station, to which the train—a slow train, as nearly all trains in Ireland are—brings you in an hour's time from Dublin. The hill is about five hundred feet above tide-water and about two hundred feet above the average level of the surrounding country. This seems a small elevation, yet, as the land is fairly level for a long distance in every direction, the top of the hill commands a very extensive as well as beautiful prospect. All round are the rich green pastures and scattered woods of Meath, one of the greenest and richest countries in Ireland; while the far-off horizon is bounded by irregular groups and ranges of mountains. To the south, beyond Dublin, are the bold summits of Wicklow; to the northeast, and distant some forty miles, the still bolder peaks of the Mourne Mountains; to the northwest, the bare ridges of Cavan; while in the southwest, sixty miles away, one catches the long blue line of the Slieve Bloom range, which looks down upon Lough Derg, with its sacred island, and the middle course of the Shannon.

No monarch could desire for his palace a finer site, nor one commanding a wider sweep of country; and it may well be that the advantages which the site afforded for discovering the approach of an enemy from a distance was one of the reasons why this height was selected for a royal residence. Another may be found in the richness of the surrounding pasture-lands, where the cattle, which constituted the chief wealth and support of the primitive Irish, could thrive and fatten. And although the hill is not comparable for the natural strength of its position to the rocky heights on which the castles of Edinburgh and Stirling and Dumbarton have been built, or to a Greek Acropolis such as that of Athens or Corinth, still it is, like Old Sarum in England, steep enough and high enough to render much more easily defensible any entrenchments placed on the top of it. It is, indeed, as good a spot for defence as can well be found over a wide range of surrounding country, for in this part of Ireland the undulations of the hills are gentle, and outbursts of igneous rock, such as occur frequently in the northeastern counties, are scarcely to be found.

The Hill of Tara itself is about half a mile long by only some two hundred yards wide at the top. It forms a ridge running nearly north and south, sloping pretty steeply to the west, and rather more gently to the east, and is covered with smooth turf, the subjacent limestone rock cropping out only in one spot on the lower slope to the west. Scattered over the hill are numerous mounds and ridges, the latter mostly circular, with no trace left of a stone building, though the presence of a number of loose stones in one of the earth circles shows that a wall or a fort of stone may have existed at some remote period. About ten or twelve distinct earthworks can still be distinguished, and slight inequalities in the grassy surface of the hill prove the former existence of others whose shape can no longer be determined. If we had no further clue to the origin or history of these remains, the spot would be romantic, but nothing more. But—and this is the peculiar interest of Tara—there exist some ancient Irish poems and prose tracts, ascribed to writers of the sixth, seventh, and eighth centuries, and preserved in the collection called the 'Dinnsenchas' (itself compiled in the twelfth century from old materials), which give a curiously minute topographical description of the hill and the various erections on it as these stood in those early centuries. When the first Ordnance survey of Ireland was being carried out in 1837, Dr. Petrie and some other learned antiquaries examined the hill by the light of these ancient records, and succeeded in identifying such earthworks as then remained with those described by the ancient writers. Though in the last sixty years a few of the mounds and ramparts which Dr. Petrie saw have been almost obliterated by the stupid selfishness of the owners of the hill, who have levelled the ground for their own purposes, and by the strange indifference of the public, which has made no effort (till the passing of the Ancient Monuments Act in 1884) to preserve these relics of antiquity, still Petrie's description remains substantially true of the place as the traveller sees it to-day; and by the help of his translations from the 'Dinnsenchas' one can tell what purpose each mound served.

On the top of the hill, where it begins to decline towards the south, is a large circular enclosure, 850 feet in diameter, surrounded by a dry ditch and a low earthen wall two and a half feet above the natural level of the hill, and in places six and a half feet above the bottom of the ditch. Within this enclosure, which is called Rath na Riogh, the "Fortress of the Kings," are several smaller earthworks and mounds, one of which, called the Forradh, or Place of Meeting, is probably the oldest monument on the hill, the seat of the most ancient dwelling of the primitive Irish kings. It is enclosed by two ramparts and two ditches, still in fair preservation, and as it seems to be older than a similar earthwork adjoining, which was called in the sixth or seventh century the House of Cormac, from Cormac Mac Airt, a king who reigned in the third century, it may very well belong to the first or second century of our era. Of the other remains (which are too numerous to mention in detail) the most remarkable is a long, narrow enclosure lying further to the north, and called the Banqueting Hall, or House of the Heroes. It is 760 feet long by 50 broad, with a number of apertures on each side corresponding with the number of the entrances given by the ancient poets, and was doubtless the spot in which the great feasts and recitations of poems to music took place, at the triennial gatherings which the kings of Ireland convoked at their capital.

That no traces of buildings in masonry remain at a place which the number and size of these earthworks prove to have been of great importance and often tenanted by a large population, is doubtless to be ascribed to the fact that the houses in which the inhabitants dwelt, and the halls in which they held revel, were all constructed of wood or wicker-work only. There seems to have been no masonry-work in Ireland before the introduction of Christianity in the fifth century, and stone was used only for the erection of loose walls of defence, such as those huge ones which remain in the Isle of Arran on the west coast. Round Tara there is very little stone to be had, and no doubt all the buildings which stood within these enclosures and upon these mounds were of timber only. They may, however, have been of considerable size, and the beauty of the numerous gold ornaments, dating from very remote times, which have been discovered, some very fine ones at Tara itself, shows that the arts of decoration had made considerable progress among these ancient Celts, as we know that music and poetry had also done.

According to the legends preserved by poets and annalists of the Christian period, Teamhair, or Tara, was first occupied by a Firboly king more than a thousand years before our era, and continued to be the chief residence of the monarchs till the reign of a king named Diarmaid, or Dermot, in the middle of the sixth century. This king had quarrelled with a famous saint of that day named Ruadhan, and the curses which the saint laid upon Tara as well as upon the king himself, caused the seat of royalty to be for ever withdrawn from it. The curse of a saint was terrible, especially if the saint was "fasting on his enemy" when he uttered it. No other spot in Ireland succeeded to the fame of Teambair as a royal residence and a place for the meeting of the national assemblies; and the poets who thereafter celebrated the glories of the ancient kings continued, down to the days of the Anglo-Norman conquest, to make Tara the frequent theme of their song, although it was then already deserted. So far as anything can be considered certain in Irish history before the coming of St. Patrick, it is pretty certain that Tara had been then for some centuries the usual seat of the monarchy and the centre of such national life as existed. Nor is there any reason to doubt the tradition which brings St. Patrick himself to Tara to confront and defy King Laoghaire (of whose Rath or fortress traces still exist on the Hill). The very remarkable poem called "The Breastplate of St. Patrick" is, by the same tradition, stated to have been composed by the missionary when he went to meet the king. Whether or no it is the work of Patrick himself, it must belong to the earliest age of Irish Christianity, for its profession of the Christian faith is tinged by lingering pagan beliefs which would

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

have been strange to ecclesiastics of a later time. The saint's name is connected with a well on the stream flowing from which had been set up, in pagan times, the first water-mill ever erected in Ireland. Unhappily, a more recent memorial of his visit has been very recently added, in the form of a poor and tasteless statue of the saint himself—a "work of art" which had been intended for the Chicago Exhibition of 1893, and which, failing to obtain a place there, has been set up here, where it is grotesquely out of keeping with the landscape and the prehistoric remains.

Tara was a place of civil and military rather than of ecclesiastical importance. It had never a round tower, and no ancient churches are mentioned. The parish church which now stands on the Hill is modern and uninteresting. Synods, however, were held—one of the earth-circles is called the Rath of the Synods; and St. Adamnan of Iona, the biographer and successor of St. Columba, who presided at one of these, is commemorated by a very ancient cross, bearing a rude figure (now much defaced), which stands in the church-yard, close beside one of the two very ancient stones called the gravestones of the Druids. An old legend says that these stones used to stand close together, and that whenever the new King of Erin was chosen and (as the custom was) placed in a chariot drawn by two horses never previously under the yoke, the stones moved apart to permit his chariot to pass between them if he was worthy of the throne, but remained fixed if he was unworthy.

A still more curious and famous stone stands in the most ancient earthwork, that called the Forradh, or Place of Assembly. It is the stone on which the newly chosen King of Ireland placed his feet, and which roared if he was a person deserving of the honor. It is repeatedly mentioned by the old writers, who call it the Lia Fail (usually interpreted Stone of Fate), and say that it stood by a hillock called the Mound of the Hostages, being the place where the King used to keep the hostages he had taken from the provinces of Ireland. It was removed to its present site in 1798, to mark the graves of the insurgents who were killed at Tara in the great rebellion of that year—a curious use to which to put a prehistoric monument. It is a bluntly conical obelisk of gray crystalline limestone, standing six feet high from the ground, and with five or six feet more under the surface. Probably it was an object of worship in heathen times The same name of Lia Fail is given to a still more famous stone, that upon which the Pictish and Scottish kings were crowned at Scone in Perthshire, and upon which the sovereigns of the United Kingdom are crowned to this day. This Scottish stone, however, which is the oldest and greatest curiosity of Westminster Abbey, was obviously used as a seat, which the Irish stone, having regard to its shape, can hardly have been.

Those who have noticed that on the Hill of Tara there are no architectural remains, nor indeed anything but grass-grown mounds, earth ramparts, and ditches, may ask wherein consists the peculiar impressiveness and even charm which the place, by the testimony of those who have visited it, possesses. Its interest lies in two things. One is that no other prehistoric monument in the British Isles is at once so ancient and so important. There are abundant remains, both in England and in Scotland, of the hill strongholds of the ancient Celtic peoples, but none had anything more than a local importance, and none shows anything more than walls and ditches of defence. Here at Tara we have a great variety of earthworks destined to different purposes, and the place was the capital of a kingdom for those days large and important, the scene of assemblies, political, military, ecclesiastical, and festive, which brought men together from every part of the island. And the second feature of special interest lies in the fact that, whereas there exists absolutely no information regarding any of the camps or towns or places of worship of primitive England or Scotland—nothing about Stonehenge, or Avebury, or Old Sarum, or Caerleon upon Usk, or even regarding the Roman cities of Uriconium and Silchester—we have for Tara descriptions so careful and minute from the earliest Irish writers that we can to-day identify and tell the purposes of these grasses, ridges, and circles, and picture to ourselves with tolerable completeness the hill fortress of the fourth century, with its kings and wizards, its bards and soldiers, and the crowd of cattle-herding dependents whose huts lay along beneath. Fantastic legends cluster round many of the spots mentioned by the old poets; and two or three of the scenes which they describe, notably the meeting of St. Patrick and the heathen king Leoghaire, and the cursing contest of St. Ruadhan and King Diarmaid, have probably an element of historical fact. Thus the place has a wealth of poetic and semi-historical associations which make it unique in the British Isles, for it belongs to centuries when in other parts of the islands history is almost silent; and its very solitude and simplicity, with nothing to speak of the past except the green lines of ditch and rampart, the rude cross and the mysterious stone pillars, make upon the imagination an impression more powerful than the elaborate works of a civilized people might have produced.

There is at present in England a remarkable revival of interest in old Celtic literature. It is to be hoped that one result of it may be to secure the publication of a number of these very ancient Irish poems, belonging to the centuries between the coming of Christianity in the fifth century and the Anglo-Norman invasion in the twelfth, which connect themselves with Tara and its kings, and enable us to realize the character of a primitive society which was, despite its rudeness and its ferocity, prolific of men learned in the learning of their time, full of intellectual life, and proud of its intellectual achievement. Y.

Correspondence.

TRUSTS AND CONSUMERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Recurring to your question as to the object of the Lexow Trust Investigation, its possibilities, etc., contained in column three, page 118, of the issue of February 18, 1897, permit me to quote from page 74 of 'Recent Economic Changes,' by David A. Wells, as follows:

"Society has practically abandoned—and from the very necessity of the case has got to abandon, unless it proposes to war against progress and civilization—the prohibition of industrial concentrations and combinations. The world demands abundance of commodities, and demands them cheaply; and experience shows it can have them only by the employment of great capital upon the most extensive scale. . . . To the producer the question of importance is, How can competition be restricted to an extent sufficient to prevent its injurious excesses? To the consumer, How can combination be restricted so as to secure its advantages and at the same time curb its abuses?"

Then what do the party platforms mean when they declare against Trusts, and the public men—even Mr. Cleveland—when they declaim? Flournoy Rivers.

Pulaski, Tenn., February 21, 1897.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The platform of the Republican City Convention of Chicago, adopted February 26, contains the following plank:

"In our opinion, one of the crying evils of our city is the destruction of the profits of the small shopkeepers by the competition of the department stores, which, by the use of labor grossly underpaid, have succeeded in largely driving out of business the many smaller storekeepers throughout the city, and we hereby request such legislation from the State of Illinois and the City Council as will prevent the combination of the many different kinds of storekeeping, otherwise unallied, in the great department stores. We believe that *the theory of the Republican party in favor of protection goes to the extent that the local business of every neighborhood*, so far as possible, *should be transacted in that neighborhood*, and we favor, as far as may be legally done, the wiping out of the present system of big department stores."

Of course, if the theory of protection has any validity whatever, the convention is right. In order to carry out the principle, let every city, town, and village enact a prohibitive tariff against its neighbors, and let every neighborhood in every city and town protect itself against every other neighborhood. Then the millennium will come; then we shall all be rich, happy, and prosperous; then "the local business of every neighborhood" will "be transacted in that neighborhood," and the wicked free-traders at last see the error of their ways and acknowledge the greatness of the principle of protection!

Yours respectfully,
Edwin I. Felsenthal.

450 W. Randolph Street, Chicago, Feb. 27, 1897.

THE VENUS OF MELOS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Evidently the unfortunate award which Paris made of the apple of Discord is destined to exert its baneful influence upon the modern world no less than it did upon the ancient, as the heat of the controversies over the most beautiful statue of the recipient of the apple shows no sign of abating, although nearly seventy-seven years have passed since the discovery of the statue and the beginning of the dispute. Recently new fuel has been added to the flames by the publication of an article in *L'Illustration* of December 12, giving what was claimed to be new and convincing testimony upon two important points—the date of the discovery of the statue, and the condition of its arms at that time. With his characteristic thoroughness, M. Salomon Reinach has shown from contemporary documents how absolutely devoid of value this testimony is, in a letter published in the *Chronique des Arts* of January 9 and 16.

In the *Nation* of February 18 Mr. Stillman has added force to M. Reinach's statements by expressing the same opinion, based upon his own investigations in the island of Melos. But, by the unhappy fatality which awaits all those who attempt to solve the mysteries of the Venus, he raises new difficulties while settling old ones. There are in his account one

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

or two statements which are not supported by the official documents, and, though of minor importance, they tend to increase the confusion already sufficiently confounded regarding the circumstances of the discovery and removal of the statue. Such are, for example, his assertions that there was no French ship-of-war in the harbor of Melos when the statue was discovered, and that it was Dumont d'Urville who rescued it for France. As M. Reinach's letter may not be accessible to all your readers, perhaps there are some among them who would be glad to know how much has actually been determined with regard to this portion of the disputed questions, and why it is that the new evidence—which has been extensively repeated and accepted by the press of this country—is not accepted by special students of the subject.

This evidence, as Mr. Stillman stated, is an extract from the diary or notebook of a French midshipman, M. de Trogoff, said to have been attached to the *Espérance* in the spring of 1820, when she was cruising in the Levant. It is held to prove two points: first, that the statue was discovered, not on the 8th of April, the date generally accepted, but between the 4th and 11th of March preceding; second, that, when discovered, it still retained the arms. The question of the date is not of vital importance, perhaps, as it makes little difference now whether the statue was found in March or in April. Still, if it can be settled, it would better be, especially as the correctness of one statement affects the validity of the whole of M. de Trogoff's testimony. In his notebook he writes that the statue was discovered by a Greek peasant "lors de notre relâche à Milo." He gives no date, but the log-book of the *Espérance* shows that she was at Melos from March 4 to March 11; hence the conclusion is supposed to be obvious and incontrovertible — the statue must have been brought to light a month earlier than has been hitherto supposed. But in reply to this it is to be said that, admitting the Trogoff document to be genuine—and, so far as the Venus is concerned, I see no reason for wishing to doubt this—it bears numerous indications of having been written some time after the event it describes, and of having been written from hearsay rather than personal inspection. In speaking of "notre relâche," the writer may have referred to the squadron to which he belonged, not to his own ship, as the other two ships of the squadron, the *Lionne* and the *Estafette*, did remain at Melos after the *Espérance* had sailed away, and were both there April 8. This is proved by documents in the French naval archives, quoted by Reinach.

Whatever may have been Trogoff's meaning, the authority for the date generally accepted is much more satisfactory and convincing. On April 10 the *Bonite* joined the two ships at Melos; its Captain, M. Dauriac, was shown the statue, and on the 11th he wrote to the French Consul-General at Smyrna, telling him about the statue, and stating that it had been found three days before. This letter has been published several times. It was evidently written to support the request of the Vice-Consul at Melos, M. Brest, that measures might be taken to secure the statue for France; for on the following day Brest wrote to the Consul-General to the same effect. In his letter he said that the statue had just been found ("Un paysan vient de trouver," etc.). Knowing the anxiety which he displayed until it was actually on board a French man-of-war, it is impossible to believe that he would have waited a month or more before reporting its discovery to his superior; and his letter, therefore, serves to give what support may be considered necessary to the explicit statement of M. Dauriac, made as soon as he had been informed of the facts. The Trogoff statement is too vague to affect such evidence as his.

Turning now to the subject of the arms, the Trogoff document says, "Elle [the statue] est bien conservée. Dans une de ses mains elle tient une pomme." The publisher of the document accepts this as evidence that when the statue was found the arms were intact, and thus revives a story which was supposed to have passed into the region of legend, namely, the account of one Matterer, said to have been a seaman on the *Estafette*, who described in tearful language an engagement which he had witnessed between the French sailors who were sent ashore to take possession of the statue, and the inhabitants who refused to let it go. This Matterer statement was worked up in the columns of *Le Temps* by an energetic correspondent in 1874, but it is now generally suspected of being an early specimen of modern "fake" journalism. At all events, the charge that it was spurious has been seriously made, and, so far as I am aware, never successfully refuted.

But assertion is not proof, and it therefore remains to be shown again why neither this nor any other statement which implies that the arms were broken off after the discovery of the statue, can be accepted in the face of the evidence we possess. The statue was found April 8, the upper and lower half being separated. The letters of the period following—which will be found in Ravaisson's later essay, "La Vénus de Milo," 1892—show that the upper half was removed immediately to a neighboring hut or stable; the lower remained some time in the place where it had been found. The Vice-Consul receiving no authority to buy the statue, and the French ships having sailed away, it was disposed of by the peasant who found it to the primates of the island, their intention being to send it as a gift to a powerful official at Constantinople. For this purpose it was carried down to the shore on May 10. M. Brest succeeded in dissuading any captain from consenting to ship it, and thus delayed its departure until May 23, when, as a Ragusan trader was about to receive it, the *Estafette* returned, bringing M. de Marcellus, secretary of the French Ambassador at the Porte, with orders to purchase it for his chief. According to Marcellus's account, the negotiations were entirely peaceful, and two days later he sailed away with his prize. As the dates given are matters of history, it will be seen that if the arms of the Venus were broken off in an encounter between French sailors and Greeks, this could not have been before May 23; if they were broken in carrying the statue down to the shore, this must have been May 10. Of any dispute or rough handling before that time there is no mention on any side.

There are, however, positive statements that the arms were broken before either of these dates—in fact, that they were not on the statue when it was found. In M. Brest's first letter, that of April 12, referred to above, he says the statue "est un peu mutilée; les bras sont cassés." On the 19th of April, Dumont d'Urville, Ensign of the *Chevrette*, which arrived at Melos a few days before, saw the statue, and subsequently wrote a long account of it, in which he states that "elle représentait une femme nue, dont la main gauche relevée tenait une pomme, et la droite soutenait une ceinture habilement drapée; . . . du reste, elles ont été l'une et l'autre mutilées, et sont actuellement détachées du corps." Finally, we have the testimony of the drawings of M. Voutier, a cadet on the *Estafette*, who actually witnessed the discovery, being only a few yards away when it was made, and who sketched the statue before his ship left Melos. His sketch is published in Ravaisson's essay, and shows that the condition of the arms was precisely as we see it to-day. The left hand holding the apple was not a myth, however; it was found with the statue, carried to Paris with it, and is now in the Louvre.

The testimony of M. de Trogoff's diary is, then, not so important as its publisher would have us believe, and is evidently not that of an eye-witness of what he describes. If he was on the *Espérance*, he could not have been at Melos when the statue was discovered, nor could he have seen it before it left the island, by which time all are agreed that its arms were broken. The old evidence upon which the history of the statue is based remains unshaken, although the newspapers are hardly to be blamed for seizing upon whatever appeared to be a final solution of any of the vexed problems which have grown up about the statue, the most popular as it is the most mysterious of all the works which Greece has left us.

EDWARD ROBINSON.

BOSTON, February 22, 1897.

AN AMENDABLE CRITICISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is an article, in Professor Skeat's *Student's Pastime*, devoted to the expression *darkling*; and very different it is from what one would expect to be offered, even by a philologist of no more than ordinary circumspection and research, as a contribution to knowledge. The gist of that article is as follows:

"Please note that *darkling* is an adverb. Keats is quite wrong in using it as an adjective; perhaps it was a beautiful word to him, because he did not clearly understand it."

This first appeared in 1887, in the pages of *Notes and Queries*, and was reprinted a few months ago.

In partial discrepancy from what is quoted above, Professor Skeat says, in his Introduction, p. lxxvi:

"Keats seems to have been under the impression that *darkling* is a present participle; but let us charitably hope that he knew it to be an adverb."

The *Oxford Dictionary* Professor Skeat is so gracious as to speak of, at page 320 of his new work, as "a book which, with all its faults, is by far the best dictionary we possess." "With all its faults," it is, however, a book from which he has something to learn about *darkling*, a word dispatched by Dr. Murray in 1894.

The adjectival use of it in Keats is, as has been seen, apparently held, by Professor Skeat, to be, if not unique, at all events a monstrosity, and noticeable merely by way of warning and to point a sneer.

Paul Whitehead, in 1739, sang of "a doleful tenant of the *darkling* cell"; and, on turning to my notes, I find that, a few years later, or in 1752, Dr. Johnson, in the motto to No. 7 of the *Rambler*, second edition, wrote, translating from Boethius:

"On *darkling* man in pure effulgence shine,
And cheer the clouded mind with light divine."

To Keats, it has been surmised, as we have

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

seen, *darkling* may have been "a beautiful word," "because he did not clearly understand it." And how as to Dr. Johnson? Were he and Keats "both in a tale"?

After altering Prof. Skeat's "because" to "and," even if we acknowledge that the two authors are to be bracketed with relation to *darkling*, still their desert is the contrary of depreciation. Though Dr. Johnson "did not clearly understand" the word, as will be shown presently, yet Keats, not impossibly, when he used it as he did, was quite aware of what he was doing. Who is to say that he did not wittingly follow, with respect to it, in the footsteps of his predecessors in his craft? To return to Dr. Johnson, inasmuch as, so far as has been ascertained, he was preceded only by Whitehead—whom he styles "a small poet"—in venturing the adjective *darkling*, it is interesting that he is, with some probability, to be credited with its effective introduction into our phraseology. However misapprehensively innovated, it was, no doubt, as to Keats, so to him, "a beautiful word"; and so, in poetic diction, it is generally considered to be, unbeautiful as it may be in the judgment of Professor Skeat.

On *darkling*, as employed in the quotations given in his *Dictionary*, Dr. Johnson, in his ignorance, is reduced to speculating that it is "a participle, as it seems, from *darkle*, which, yet, I have never found; or, perhaps, a kind of diminutive from *dark*, as *young*, *youngling*." As used by Shakespeare, Milton, and Dryden, most dictionaries, down to this hour, erroneously call it an adjective. That, in recent authors, it is frequently so is not to be disputed. And why, as adjectival, should it not be as good as, to go no farther, *now* and *then*, for instance, put attributively, were to our forefathers?

To Dr. Murray we owe the information that, among those who have used *darkling* at variance with its original acceptation, are, besides the authors already named, Shenstone, Hurdis, Gilbert Wakefield, Sir Walter Scott, Dr. Chalmers, Matthew Arnold, Mr. George Meredith, Mrs. Oliphant, Mr. P. H. Gosse, and Mr. J. R. Lowell. And this list I could amplify from my own verbal stores.

The verb *darkle*, now nearly a century old, concerning which, also, Dr. Murray enters into full particulars, has eluded Prof. Skeat's observation; and likewise has *darkling*, as its participial adjective. The first occurs in Thomas Moore, Byron, Thackeray, William Morris, and others. And, except for a narrow range of reading, or an irretentive memory, to whom is it unfamiliar? For the rest, viewed analogically, it is nothing strikingly peculiar. To many verbs, up and down our language, we find *-le* suffixed, to the production of derivates neither diminutive nor frequentative, appreciably; among them being *croak*, *gab*, *grunt*, *hug*, *just*, *ming*, *ring*, *scuff*, *start*, *ting*, *tink*, *touse*, and *twink*. Why not, then, *darkle* from *dark*, to be accounted simply a euphonic elongation of it? Or why not justify it, theoretically, as a back-formation from *darkling*, on the analogy of *grovel*, from *groveling*?

By misleading deliverances like that on *darkling*, Prof. Skeat puts his reputation to the touch. He is much too prone to precipitancy. It often really looks as if he supposed that, because of his proficiency in the English of ancient days, bare intuition was well-nigh adequate to acquaint him with the English of modern days. In none of his various productions are there tokens that, otherwise than through the medium of dictionaries and glossaries, and these consulted insufficiently, he has explored our literature of the last four centuries to any but a moderate extent, just as it has been explored by thousands of living students who advance no pretensions as philologists. Throughout his *Etymological Dictionary* this fact is patent; and very noticeably does it detract from what might, under other circumstances, have been its value. Greater still might have been its value if it had not been compiled, as it avowedly was, against time; and no one can estimate what its value might not have been, if it had not been compiled prematurely. Single-handed drudgery could accumulate but a minute fraction of materials equal to those at the service of Dr. Murray and Mr. Bradley; and, with the scanty relevant materials that Prof. Skeat had at his command, nothing better than the indifferent success which has attended his etymological labours could have been anticipated. Nor has it escaped the inquisition of the curious, that his hold on scientific principles is neither firm nor steady, and that his logical faculty is not of an eminent order. To no competent person who, for a few hours, examines, side by side, his *Etymological Dictionary* and the *Oxford Dictionary*, will the conclusion be avoidable, that, as concerns the treatment of the history and derivation of our vocabulary, the latter, "with all its faults," is, beyond comparison, superior. Moreover, the *Etymological Dictionary* being by much the most important of its author's publications, and being what it is, especially with its strange attitude towards suffixes, little does it become him to assume, as is his wont, towards his fellow-philologists, an air of magisterial patronage. No one, he should bear in mind, abases himself by modesty and generous appreciation. Of these things one might, under ordinary conditions, feel constrained to content oneself with vague intimations, or with none at all. But the subject of the present remarks, censorious at every other turn, sets no example of reticence; and what is permissible to a critic is not impermissible to a counter-critic. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, February 9, 1897.

TOAD AND TOADY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was looking over an old edition of Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress' the other day, and, in the "Author's Apology for his Book," came across these lines:

> "If that a pearl may in a toad's head dwell,
> And may be found too in an oyster shell."

Turning to the 'Century Dictionary,' under *Toad* I found the following: "The fable of the jewel in the toad's head may have some basis of fact in the piece of glistening cartilage which represents an unossified basioccipital." Such glistening substance would hardly suggest a pearl, however. Does Bunyan in this line represent the common form of the superstition?

Can you tell me how the word "toady," as used for example by Thackeray in his 'Book of Snobs,' originated? What is there in the habits or appearance of the ordinary toad to suggest any disposition on his part to raise himself by unworthy methods to a station superior to that allotted him by a wise Providence?

I have had unusual opportunities for observing toads. A great multitude of them dwell under my barn, and I have found them in every way eminently respectable tenants. Though I possess unusual opportunities for advancing or retarding their fortunes, they have never to my knowledge approached me in the attitude of sycophants or flattered me in any manner whatsoever. Their life for the most part seems to be one of great leisure and dignity—*otium cum dignitate*.

CHARLES EDWARD STOWE.

SIMSBURY, CONN., February 27, 1897.

[*Toady* would seem to be connected immediately with *toad-eating*. See both illustrated in one scene in Cruikshank's 'Sketch-Book.'—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS have in press 'Philip and Alexander of Macedon,' by Prof. D. C. Hogarth of Oxford; 'A Short History of Mediæval Europe,' by Prof. Oliver J. Thatcher of the University of Chicago; 'Martha Washington,' by Miss Anne Hollingsworth Wharton; 'The Builders, and Other Poems,' by Dr. Henry van Dyke; and 'A Story-Teller's Pack,' short stories by Frank R. Stockton.

Further announcements by Macmillan Co. are 'The Port of Missing Ships, and Other Stories of the Sea'; 'A Manual of Coach Building,' by John Philipson; and Temple Scott's 'Book Sales of the Year 1896.'

Henry Holt & Co. will speedily issue 'The Fern Collector's Handbook and Herbarium,' by Miss S. F. Price; volume ii. of Prof. E. Aubert's 'Littérature Française'; and 'In Plain Air,' by Mrs. Cabot.

Prof. Trent's 'Southern Statesmen of the Old Régime' is on the point of being issued by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Edward Arnold will have ready on March 5 'Through Unknown African Countries: The First Expedition from Somaliland to Lake Rudolf and Lamu,' by A. Donaldson Smith, M.D., with nearly thirty full-page plates and other illustrations, and five original maps, with a full index. The author is an American.

T. Fisher Unwin's spring announcements include 'The Works of Charles Keene,' with introduction and notes by Joseph Pennell; 'The Printers of Basle,' being the autobiographies of Felix and Thomas Platter; 'The Welsh People,' their origin, language, history, and present characteristics, edited by Prof. John Rhys; 'Pioneer Work in the Alps of New Zealand,' by Arthur P. Harper; Taine's 'Travelling Notes in Southern France'; 'Turgeneff and his French Circle,' a series of letters to Flaubert, George Sand, Zola, etc, edited by M.-H. Halpérine-Kaminsky; 'South Africa as It Is,' by F. Reginald Statham; 'The Inner Life of the House of Commons'; 'Communism in Middle Europe in the Time of the Reformation,' from the German of Carl Kautsky; 'Frederic Engels, Co-founder of Scientific Socialism'; 'A Village Politician,' the life story of John Buckley; 'The Life of Sir Henry Parkes'; and 'St. Mark's Indebtedness to St. Matthew,' by F. P. Badham.

Students of early English will rejoice to learn that Mätzner's great Dictionary, the publication of which has been suspended for nearly six years, in consequence of his death, is now resumed, with every prospect of a speedy completion. The present editor, Hugo Bieling, associated with Mätzner in the earlier portions of the work (from F on), is abundantly qualified for his task. The present

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

fasciculus, pp. 305-464, runs from *makien* to *merien*. From the brief statement on the cover, we learn that Bieling's exclusive responsibility begins with *marchen*, p. 348. It would perhaps be over-sanguine to expect the completion of the *magnus opus* by the end of the century. S and W, as the Germans say, are ugly chapters. But we hope for only a brief waiting after 1900. Meanwhile we welcome the new editor heartily.

While we can hardly think the continuator of the late Prof. Alexander Johnston's 'American Orations' (Putnams) of equal rank with that scholar and student, his insertions and additions, involving a fourth volume, will be found convenient for reference. The necessary condensation when, as in volume iv., twenty orators are presented in 400 pages of moderate size and open type, quite spoils the newer volumes for rhetorical enjoyment. Omitted passages are generally summarized in the appendix.

A tenth edition of Bartholomew's 'Pocket Atlas of the World' (Putnams) is not to be wondered at. The little volume, beside one, answers a thousand questions in the broader, and even in the minuter, range of geographical knowledge with the least trouble. There are nearly a hundred and fifty maps altogether, with an index of seventy-two pages, not quite impeccable: the only entry for Sandwich Islands, for example, refers to the South Polar group. The classified list of maps in the table of contents should, in our judgment, be repeated alphabetically.

Sir E. J. Poynter's portrait fronts the titlepage of the eighteenth issue of 'The Year's Art,' 1897 (London: J. S. Virtue & Co.; New York: Brentano's), and leads the regular array of portraits of his fellow-artists. The list has now become so considerable as to demand an alphabetical index, which is accordingly given on pp. 310-13, and covers the years 1888-96, with indication of the deaths in that period—those of last year forming a minority significant both in number and in weight. Besides the usual compact and full information respecting societies, exhibitions, etc., a record has been made of all proof-engravings and etchings of the year published under the sanction of the Printsellers' Association. Moreover, arts and crafts have found recognition in a directory of craftsmen and designers appended to the customary directory of artists proper.

The *Portfolio* for January (Macmillan) consists of a monograph on 'Albert Dürer's Paintings and Drawings,' by Lionel Cust. The illustrations are very fairly well reproduced, and are, of course, of the highest interest; but it cannot be said that the text is very valuable as containing anything new or very interesting, either as art criticism or as biography. It, however, serves its purpose as a vehicle for the illustrations in a respectable manner.

The *Quarto* (London: J. S. Virtue) is another of the new English magazines in covers which, if not so eccentric, is also not so clever as some of its predecessors. The only marked difference from others of its type which it displays is the inclusion of music in its table of contents. It has only one illustration of any great degree of merit, a photogravure after Rossetti's painting of "The Salutation of Beatrice," and contains no literature that seems above the ordinary magazine average. It is called a "quarterly," but seems, so far, to be very irregular in date of publication.

The most recent work of the indefatigable editor, Senator Luigi Chiala, is 'La Vita e i Tempi del Generale Giuseppe Dabormida' (Turin: Roux, Frassati & Co.), in which are given for the first time many documents concerning the Italian Revolution of 1848. Dabormida was both one of Charles Albert's most trustworthy generals and a member of his Cabinet in that exciting year. Prefixed to the main biography is a sketch by V. Chiala of Gen. V. E. Dabormida, who gallantly lost his life in the battle of Adowa March 1, 1896, while fighting the Abyssinians. In soldierly qualities, in loyalty to their king, and in devotion to duty, the Dabormidas were fine specimens of that best Piedmontese stock to which Italy owed, in large measure, her independence and unity.

A recent Johns Hopkins doctoral dissertation, by Constance Pessels, is on 'The Present and Past Periphrastic Tenses in Anglo-Saxon.' The writer, now instructor in the University of Texas, has studied the Anglo-Saxon texts exhaustively and tabulated the results. The chief conclusion, stated at page 74, that periphrasis is not conclusively a borrowing from Latin, or, if borrowed, was early naturalized, seems to us well established. We are not quite satisfied with the terminology "periphrastic tenses" for such locutions as "I was fighting," but should prefer to call them "periphrastic forms." Nor does it seem to us wise to adopt Sweet's definition of a "future preterite," p. 23. Occasionally the writer's expression is not as lucid as it should be. But in the main the dissertation is a bit of solid work.

Frank H. Chase's 'Bibliographical Guide to Old English Syntax,' though published by Fock, Leipzig, represents the writer's study, as Clark scholar, at Yale. It is an extremely useful little pamphlet, giving one the means of surveying the literature bearing upon the subject. The critical remarks proffered are few, but sound and suggestive. If we were to raise any objection, it would be to the writer's estimate of Wülfing. That scholar's voluminous and labored compilation seems to us faulty both in plan and in execution. But we must not make too much of a minor point in Chase's work, while commending it as a whole for precision and practical arrangement.

In *Dialect Notes*, Part ix., Prof. George Hempl of the University of Michigan makes a first report on the distribution of American dialects, using as criterion the pronunciation of *grease* and *greasy*. He has had some 1,600 sets of answers to his list of questions, and concludes that there are four dialectic sections of the country, called North, South, Midland (a belt separating the two previous divisions), and West. "The District of Columbia is peculiarly national," but is in this report classed, like Delaware, with the Midland. "In some matters Canada (especially Lower Canada) goes with the North, in others with the Midland and the South." As respects the pronunciation of *grease* and *greasy*, the North generally "strongly favors *s* in the adjective and verb." Subserviency to Walker and his lexicographical imitators has, in and about Boston, favored the use of "*s* in noun, *z* in verb and adjective," and so somewhat disturbed the general verdict. "Connecticut is the average New England as well as Northern State. For the Middle North (that is, excluding New England and the British Possessions), Iowa occupies a similar position, as does southern Iowa for the West, and middle Illinois for the Midland belt." Arkansas and most of Missouri represent the South. "Our North harmonizes fairly with the larger part of England, while our Midland, and even more our South, show distinct traces of the Scotch and Scotch-Irish ancestry of a large part of their population."

We reviewed, some years ago, a book entitled 'Kentucky Jurisprudence,' by Mr. L. N. Dembitz of the Louisville bar, in which the author successfully established his proposition that the development of law in the several States would furnish material for a corresponding number of separate treatises. The suggestion has so far, we believe, not been acted on; but in the February number of the *New Jersey Law Journal* Mr. Frederic Adams of the bar of that State points out a peculiarly interesting field for such a legal inquiry. In fact, as he observes, the public history of New Jersey is for the most part a history of law; and "a bare enumeration of the attractive features of a legal narrative that should begin with the Duke of York and end with the Duke of Gloucester" would of itself occupy no inconsiderable space.

The new first supplement to the Carnegie Free Library's Catalogue of Fiction (Allegheny, Pa.) is noticeable for its prefatory "List of Books no longer on the shelves," including Horatio Alger's, Martha Finley's, May Agnes Fleming's, "Harry Castlemon's," A. C. Gunter's, Mrs. Mary Jane Holmes's, E. P. Roe's, Mrs. Southworth's, Marion Harland's, and Augusta J. Evans's. The intrepid librarian fortifies his action with extracts from the *Nation's* reviews pointing out the inanity of many of these voluminous purveyors for the vacant mind.

An unusually interesting number of the *Geographical Journal* contains an account of an extensive journey to the north of the Zambesi by which some important gaps in the map of this region were filled. The explorers found that the memory of Dr. Livingstone was retained by many of the natives, who befriended them for his sake. Much of the country traversed was devastated by the rinderpest, and "the game now is practically extinct, the carcasses lying rotting in all directions." In some notes of a journey made for the study of the classical geography of Mysia, Mr. J. A. R. Munro describes a settlement of Russians on Lake Manias who, after centuries of expatriation, "retain their national type and customs with surprising freshness." "Their houses are neat and well kept," and "the inhabitants appear to be prosperous and contented"—and this within a comparatively short distance of Constantinople. There is also an account of a visit to the cave-dwellings on Mount Elgon in East Africa. Some are of a considerable size, with numerous passages, and are inhabited by large numbers of people, who "appear to develop a special power of sight, and run about at full speed in the dense darkness of the passages with the greatest ease and confidence." The caves are very dry, and "the attrition of human feet through long ages has worn away the rock and produced a fine floury dust" several feet deep. Some travellers have suggested that they were artificial, but Mr. Hobley thinks that they may be due to the action of water when the Victoria Nyanza was a "mighty inland sea." This and the preceding articles are accompanied by maps, and there is also a map of the Niger delta, compiled in part from a route survey by Major Crawford, one of the victims of the recent Benin massacre. Sir Clements Markham's address at the jubilee of the Hakluyt Society contains many interesting facts, especially regarding the life and work of Richard Hakluyt, to whom, as the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

preserver of the records of explorers and discoverers, both Shakspere and Milton owed much.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for February opens with an account of recent explorations in the Patagonian Andes, made for the purpose of determining the continental watershed and the sources of the principal streams, and to examine the valleys, which appear to be of great value both for agriculture and for cattle-raising. This is followed by notes on the geography of the Argentine Republic.

Since Miss Helen Gladstone retired from the first vice-principalship of Newnham College, in order to be with her parents during their declining years, the post has been filled by the appointment of Miss Katherine Stephen, daughter of the late Sir James Stephen. Miss Stephen's promotion to Sidgwick Hall makes room for Miss B. A. Clough, younger daughter of Arthur Hugh Clough, who succeeds as head of Clough Hall. Mr. and Mrs. H. Y. Thompson have presented the college with a new library, which is now being built; it will hold three or four times as many books as the old library and accommodate many more readers.

—Mr. Harry A. Cushing's 'History of the Transition from Provincial to Commonwealth Government in Massachusetts' is the latest issue in the Columbia University "Studies in History, Economics and Public Law." The period is one which, in many of its aspects, has been pretty thoroughly worked, but its governmental features have not, so far as we recall, received so detailed an examination as is here given them. Rightly insisting, at the outset, that the Revolution was no sudden or isolated event, but "the normal ending of years of faithful adherence to divergent policies," and of "the firm maintenance of incompatible political theories," Mr. Cushing shows how careful Massachusetts was to conform, as far as possible, to familiar law and precedent, even while constitutional principles were yielding to the stress of political necessity. As the breach with Great Britain widened, and the possibility of war became more imminent, the Provincial Congress was forced to assume increased powers of control; in so doing, however, it manifested a remarkable deference to the wishes of the Continental Congress, to which it seems to have felt itself, in a way, subordinate. On May 16, 1775, the Provincial Congress accepted a report of a committee declaring that since the condition of affairs in Massachusetts and the possibility of war "equally affected our sister colonies and us, we have declined, though urged thereto by the most pressing necessity, to assume the reins of civil government" without the advice and consent of the Continental Congress; and it was in accordance with the suggestion of that body that the government under the charter was resumed. The chapter on the Constitution of 1778 is of especial value; that on the Constitution of 1780 covers, naturally, more familiar ground. We note unimportant misprints on pages 152 and 182. The fact that Mr. Cushing's volume is one which all students of American history will be grateful for, makes the absence of an index only the more unpardonable.

—Mr. L. L. Price of Oriel College, Oxford, has collected a number of his essays, published and unpublished, in a volume entitled 'Economic Science and Practice' (London: Methuen & Co.). More definitely these papers may be described as essays on the various aspects of the relations of economic science to practical affairs. If not of very high, they are of very even, merit, being marked by moderation and good sense as well as scholarship. The author is a bimetallist, but, as he is evidently incapable of dishonesty, it is curious to observe the arguments that he finds unanswerable. Falling prices, he thinks, act powerfully on the imagination, and discourage enterprise. This is very well in theory, but if any one attempts to make out that the era since 1873 has been one of "discouraged enterprise," he has not a hopeful task. Theoretically "it cannot be doubted that employers are disheartened by falling prices"; but in spite of their faint hearts they have vastly increased the number of their workmen since 1873. It is true, Mr. Price concedes, that appearances may fail to reveal the existence of suffering on the part of the wage-earner, who yet might have been much better off had it not been "for discouragement occasioned by falling prices to business enterprise." Still, Mr. Price is conscious that some more tangible evidence of the ruin caused by the gold standard might be helpful, and this he finds in "the stationary wages, the falling profit, the failure to recover from temporary depression due to credit fluctuations, and the feeling of *malaise* which has been a characteristic of business in recent years, attested by successive Royal Commissions." It may be submitted that this is not exactly evidence, in the scientific sense, and that if, as a matter of fact, the purchasing power of wages and the number of wage-earners are increasing, if production is enlarged even with a declining rate of profit, and if the volume of trade steadily swells, the disastrous effect of the gold standard remains to be proved.

—The Symbolists are still alive, and furnish matter for two volumes, one, 'Le Livre des Masques,' by Remy de Gourmont (Paris: Société du Mercure de France), the other by Jacques Plowert, 'Petit Glossaire pour servir à l'intelligence des Auteurs décadents et symbolistes' (Paris: Vanier). The latter is really a reissue of the book published in 1888. It may therefore be dismissed with this passing mention, that it is exactly what its title indicates, a glossary of terms affected by Décadents, though many of these terms are by no means peculiar to that peculiar group, nor even employed by them in any new sense. Gourmont's book is disappointing. It is an almost uniform laudation of writers who have not all succeeded in making themselves heard by the public—which is, therefore, an idiotic public. Epithets which Hugo would have loved to apply to himself, if he had only thought of them, are freely bestowed on third and fourth-rate Symbolists; they are "luminous Levites," whatever that may mean; "authentic glories of French letters of the present," and so forth. The preface is better worth reading, for it is an attempt to define Symbolism and a protest against the slavish observance of rules and formulæ, a protest to which one may heartily subscribe without necessarily sharing M. de Gourmont's admiration of the writers of his school. According to him, Symbolism is the expression, even if excessive and unseasonable, of individualism in art. What gives a value of its own to the book is the admirable work of the illustrator, F. Vallotton, whose masks of the authors spoken of are excellent in every respect.

—The first part of a 'Geschichte der isländischen Geographie,' published by Teubner of Leipzig, is the German translation of a work by the Icelandic geologist Thorvald Thoroddsen, printed (in 1892) by the Icelandic Literary Society for its members. The present volume begins with a discussion of the imagined identity of Iceland with the Thule of the ancients, and ends with a description of the cartography of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; a subsequent volume will bring the matter down to the present time. The author has treated his subject along the broadest possible lines. The work is primarily intended to cover everything of importance that has been written concerning Icelandic geography; but political, commercial, and social conditions, a knowledge of which is necessary to the intelligibility of early writers, have also been most carefully described in their historical development, and literature and *Culturgeschichte* have received an unexpected share of attention. This is especially worthy of note, since for a great part of the time under discussion but little has hitherto been done. The earliest period of the history of Iceland, thanks to the phenomenal literature of the Classic Age, has been most minutely investigated. With regard to conditions after 1300, however, as the author points out in his preface, there is still almost complete darkness, although plenty of material is at hand in documents and manuscripts which are the sources of some of the present material. That the work was originally written for an Icelandic public, and not for the specialist, has in no wise invalidated its interest or its usefulness.

—A report of unusual interest has lately been issued by the Public Works Department of the Government of India, concerning the great landslip at Gohna on a head branch of the Ganges in the Garhwal Himalayas, in September, 1893, and the precautions taken to lessen danger when the lake formed by the slip overflowed in August, 1894. The slip descended about 4,000 feet; successive falls continuing for three days with deafening noise, the air being darkened with dust from the 800,000,000 tons of shattered rocks. A dam was formed across the narrow Birahi Ganga valley, behind which a lake at once began to rise. It was hopeless to cut a passage through the dam. As the flood anticipated when the lake overflowed could not be controlled, effort was turned to warning the people in the valley below. A telegraph line was constructed from Hardwar, where the Ganges emerges on the plains, to the lake, 150 miles away in the mountains. Iron suspension bridges were dismantled and removed and replaced by temporary rope bridges for the use of pilgrims, who resort in great numbers to the sacred valley. Safety pillars were set up in plain sight at frequent intervals along the valley-side, to indicate the probable height of the flood. In April, 1894, predictions based on the rate of rise of the lake waters gave August 15 as the date of overflow and discharge. The flood actually happened at midnight, August 25–26, during heavy rain. In four hours the dam was cut down 390 feet; the lake was reduced from four to two miles in length, and from half to a quarter of a mile in breadth; ten billion cubic feet of water was discharged. The flood rushed down the valley at a rate of twenty miles an hour just below the dam; its advance was reduced to ten miles an hour at Hardwar. The water generally rose well up to the safety pillars, one or two hundred feet above the ordinary channel; its increase was nicely recorded even at night by the successive extinction of lanterns that had been lighted on posts set up at ten-foot vertical intervals at

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

a number of points along the doomed valley. Two bridges that had been left standing, after protest by the local authorities against their removal, were swept away. Many miles of valley road was obliterated. All vestiges of habitations were destroyed at three considerable towns and many small villages. Yet so completely did the telegraphic warnings from the lake serve their purpose that not a single human life was lost. The officer in charge of this beneficent work was Lieut.-Col. R. R. Pulford.

PATER'S UNFINISHED ROMANCE.

Gaston de Latour: An Unfinished Romance. By Walter Pater. Macmillan. 1896.

Mr. Shadwell informs us that this little volume is the last we may expect from his gleanings of Mr. Pater's uncollected work, and the last that was left in fit condition for publication by that careful and elaborate workman. The greater part of these seven chapters appeared in *Macmillan's Magazine*, and hence will be new to many readers on this side of the water. To say that the work is an unfinished romance need not disappoint readers who are familiar with Mr. Pater's methods; each chapter is a vignette which is self-sufficing in its individual beauty and interest.

Gaston de Latour is a second Marius, transferred to the sphere of modern thoughts and ideas. Mr. Pater has chosen France for his scene, just at the time when the Renaissance and the religious wars made it a vortex of mingling currents and movements in art, philosophy, and religion. Gaston's birthplace is an old château, in the fertile plain of La Beauce, the country of Joachim du Bellay, over whose wide landscape the Cathedral of Chartres "shows like a ship for ever a-sail in the distance." He is the last of a long line of gentlefolk, who had infused something of their blood as well as of their gentility into the neighborhood, and left their impress upon its character and manners as well as on the landscape. Their château of Deux Manoirs, embodying in the peculiarity of its architecture an episode of family affections, is one of those places which the genius of Mr. Pater loved to haunt and to adorn with fanciful and touching retrospect such as we meet with in 'The Child in the House.'

Here, in the family chapel of St. Hubert, the young seigneur is first presented to us. He is taking a step which might end the race of Latour; he is of his own choice assuming clerk's orders, according to the ritual of the Roman Church. Yet the old ecclesiastics of his kindred, who assist at the rite, have their misgivings; they can discern that he is not quite after their kind. The cloistered life at the Cathedral of Chartres will not extinguish certain alien and disquieting sensibilities. He suspects "somewhere in the world, waiting for him in the distance, a still living humanity, perchance already on its way, to explain, by its own plenary beauty and power, why wine and roses and the languorous summer afternoons were so delightful. . . . Sorrow came along with beauty, a rival of its intricate omnipresence in life. . . . The beauty of the world and its sorrow, solaced a little by religious faith, itself so beautiful a thing—these were the chief impressions with which he made his way towards manhood."

These passages echo the note of 'Marius' and of 'The Child in the House.' It is easy to guess with what subtle, refined, and tender touches the author of these works paints the life and atmosphere of La Beauce, the memories and associations of the old château, the routine and ceremonial of the great cathedral. There the young clerk and his fellow-acolytes pursue an unending function, "a sort of religious drama, as if one explored the entire Middle Ages." The young clerical actors in this drama were not too deeply tinctured with its sentiment and solemnity. Mr. Pater, who knew his student world in Oxford, sketches with delicious penetration the ways of this flock of sparrows in the temple—their zealous officiousness, their disdain of the untonsured laity, their profound irreverence, their worldliness and graceful fopperies, their longing for Paris and all the pomps and vanities which the Huguenots despised. "Half clerical, they loved nevertheless the touch of steel; they read eagerly in racy new translations old Greek and Latin books with a delightful shudder at their wanton paganism."

Gaston, too, had his fit of the classical enthusiasm. Like his comrades, he had taken on trust the *hortus siccus* of Virgil and Horace. It was a "docile act of faith" regarding a past that was chained to the bookshelf. But he takes his first flight into the "world of modernity" as he crosses the low hills that bound the horizon of La Beauce, and visits the convent where Ronsard, by special court favor, was acting as lay-superior. This is a second step in our Pilgrim's Progress. He had already made the acquaintance of the poet's odes, of his "Skylark," and his "Mignonne! allons voir si la Rose," "which had proved the key to a new world of seemingly boundless intellectual resources, and yet with a special closeness to visible sensuous things." Here was something new and alive, like the faces one knows and loves, as brilliant and magical as the flowers and the birds in the sunshine. Compared with the Maries and Cassandres, what were Dido and Æneas but statues in the gallery of antiquity? Why should poetry "mask itself in the habit of a bygone day? Gaston could but pity the people of the past for not being above ground to read."

Thus vividly does Mr. Pater suggest the miracle that was wrought on youthful imagination by the poetry of the Pleiad—the budding of that new spring—the awakening from the sterile contemplation of a beautiful but petrified past to the worship of a living beauty speaking the languages of the day. This new and profane religion—the worship of physical beauty, with Ronsard for its high priest—makes an appeal to the ardent young clerk that is likely to conflict with his vows and his tonsure. But he is plunged into deeper waters when the "Prince of Poets" offers him a letter to his friend Michel de Montaigne, with which he travels further south to the Gironde, "the country of peach-blossoms and wine."

The chapter on Montaigne must remain a classic on its attractive subject. In it Mr. Pater has decanted the essence of the Essays, in their discursive turnings and windings, and has managed to collect a most characteristic cento of their thoughts and phrases. All this is artfully wreathed about the individual traits of their author so as to give a nearly perfect miniature of a singular and fascinating personality. The undulancy of that philosophy into which Gaston found his mind precipitated, its "fluxions and mobility," its negative and sceptical attitude, are somewhat over-emphasized by Mr. Pater as well as by Emerson. If Montaigne thought "doubt the best of pillows to sleep on," it was a sleep from which he wakened with purged vision that saw centuries beyond his contemporaries. At his particular epoch, it really was the "greatest thing in the world for a man to know that a man is his own." His scepticism is, on its reverse side, only the assertion of freedom and independence of thought—a splendid practical assertion, which is felt in every chapter and page of his writings. His indifference, in another view, became religious tolerance, in which he was "the solitary conscience of his age." The light of common day, that shines around us all now, was then a single gleam just touching the height of that genial and elevated intelligence. His ideas on education, his condemnation of monkish asceticism, his adorable spirit of humanity, his abhorrence of cruelty to children, to criminals, and to animals—all these, which are the axioms of modern civilization, were then hardly dreamed of save by that tender heart and innovating brain. "I do not much pity the dead, and I should envy them rather; but I very much pity the dying. For my part, even in justice itself, all that exceeds mere death appears to me pure cruelty. . . . 'Tis not a soul, 'tis not a body we are training up, but a man; and we ought not to divide him. Of all the infirmities we have, the most savage is to despise our being." In sentences like these break out the light and reason of that lucid and unique spirit, like a patch of blue sky above the mists and prejudices and illusions of its tumultuous age.

When Gaston leaves Montaigne's "Castle of Circe," and visits Paris just on the verge of the massacre of St. Bartholomew, when he marries a young girl of Huguenot family by "dubious and irregular rites, the religious sanction of which he hardly recognized," the casual reader may fancy that he is at last hot on the scent of romantic passion and adventure. But Mr. Pater's admirers know quite well that this cannot be, that there is nothing of Dumas or Stevenson in his pensive and meditative pages. He is here, as in his 'Marius,' the historian of sensations and ideas, not of action, and passions, and hair-breadth escapes. It is, indeed, most striking and characteristic how, just at the moment when action might be forced upon his hero, he swerves aside and will have none of it. The healthy and happy novel-reader, who loves the drama of passion and adventure, and who regularly commits the crime of reading solely for amusement, may as well be warned that Mr. Pater will not serve his turn. Here is a romance which offers no action, no conversation, no love-making, no adventures greater than the surprise of meeting with a great poet or a famous philosopher. On the eve of the massacre Gaston is summoned to his grandfather's deathbed; his young wife, with her unborn child, flees into the country, believing herself deserted and betrayed, at the most poignant moment, and so disappears. Instead of the massacre itself, we have a fine allusive description of the atmosphere of horror and delirium, of mystery and wild surmise, that overshadows it; in the midst of this, a single tragedy is hinted at, and then vanishes into melancholy haze.

The thread of personal experiences which in 'Marius' was never lost, is firmly held in the early chapters on the boyhood and nurture of Latour; it is retained in the chapter on Ronsard, who is felt and seen through the fancy and the eyes of his youthful and poetic worshipper; it reappears rarely in the essay on Montaigne, it disappears completely in the chapter on Giordano Bruno. Perhaps it was the consciousness that he had lost his hero which broke off this vein, and left us only a

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

fragment. Be that as it may, Gaston here simply poses as a listener to introduce us, one Whitsunday afternoon, to an address *de umbris idearum* by Giordano Bruno, that Dominican brother whose philosophy was just then one of the new-fangled Italian fashions made welcome at Paris. But the listener drops out of view altogether, and instead we are offered the personality of the philosopher.

There is something in the method of its presentation which recalls the unity of purpose, the continuity of interests and studies, which run through all Mr. Pater's work. The essay on Joachim du Bellay was published in 1872; the poetry of the Pleiad, the wide landscape and the fertile fields of La Beauce, the winnowers' song and the winnowing fans took hold of his fancy, and it is to those scenes that he reverts nearly twenty years later for the birthplace of his hero, Gaston de Latour. He was always fond of philosophy, but of philosophy only as embodied in or shining through a personality. In his Sebastian Van Storck he personified or dramatized Spinozism. "Philosophy," he wrote in his essay on Winckelmann—"philosophy serves culture, not by the fancied gift of absolute or transcendental knowledge, but by suggesting questions which help one to detect the passion and strangeness and dramatic contrasts of life." It is from this point of view that he looks at Plato; it is from the same that he gives us those rounded and vivid and colored pictures of Montaigne and Giordano Bruno.

"The spiritual unity of the world" which Bruno preached "must involve the alliance, the congruity, of all things with one another, of the teacher's personality with the doctrine he had to deliver—in hearing him speak you seemed to see that subtle spiritual fire to which he testified, kindling from word to word. In Bruno that abstract theory of the perpetual motion of the world was become a visible person talking with you."

The same thing, *mutatis mutandis*, may be said of our author, as we listen here to the last vibrations of his musical voice. He and his philosophy were all of one piece. He was endowed with that keen sense of form and sounds and scents and colors, and of their impression on the emotions and the soul, which transcends the gamut of ordinary experience, and is the special heritage of the poet and the artist. This exquisite and perilous sense, which in most of us fades after childhood, and in many is dulled and perverted to gross abuse, he kept to the last so fresh and pure and true that he showed how it might ally itself with religion—that he bridged in a Platonic manner the passage from the beautiful to the good, from the perception of ideal beauty to the conscience of the good. He showed how this refined epicureanism, the enjoyment of select and noble pleasures, of the most refined sensations and emotions which the fleeting moment can offer, may ally itself in the end with morality, with the beauty of holiness. Finally, he interpreted this sense with the most vivid fidelity, and with a literary craft whose beauty and conscientious finish were born of his creed. If such doctrine seems esoteric, a cult reserved only for the initiated few, it is none the less a counsel of perfection—a goal towards which human nature must press and aspire if it is destined some time "to let the ape and tiger die." It is a doctrine that above all needs preaching to a gross and materialized democracy like ours, to the Caliban or the plutocrat who is the true *Epicuri de grege porcus*. And hence these highly wrought essays have a real message to deliver and a real niche to fill in the temple of art and humanity.

ENGLISH RHETORIC AND COMPOSITION.

Constructive Rhetoric. By Edward Everett Hale, jr. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

Talks on Writing English. By Arlo Bates. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

THE term Constructive Rhetoric seems to be used by Mr. Hale, not in opposition to analytical rhetoric, but to indicate that he wishes to analyze the art of composition for constructive purposes—to use the materials of rhetoric to teach students how to write. He is professor of rhetoric and logic in Union College, and no doubt his book illustrates his own method of teaching. This may be described, briefly, as consisting of an explanation of the principles underlying the art of writing, accompanied by exercises in the application of the principles. For instance, Part I., which treats of kinds of composition (narration, description, exposition, and argumentation), after explaining them, gives a number of subjects, *e. g.*, Autumn Weather, The Decay of Political Honesty in Republics, and The Oratory of Burke, and asks the student to determine by what kind of composition each should be treated. This part of the book is simple, and contains many useful and, we believe, some original suggestions. Beginners not only have few ideas, but they are totally unaccustomed to reflect upon or analyze their own mental processes, or to consider the fitness of a particular rhetorical means to an end. Most people remain in a fog about this all their lives. A student doing the exercises in Part I. could but find his literary powers strengthened by them. What the author says about the mistake of "realists" who imagine that a catalogue is good descriptive writing is excellent, and so is his analysis of a passage from Scott illustrating the fact that description which follows the order of sequence of original observation is apt to be good. The rationale of this matter we take to be that the method in question reproduces for the hearer the *impressions* made on the observer, exactly as they were produced, *i. e.*, the natural order. In modern descriptive writing we are often annoyed by the writer's undertaking to invert the order and force an unnatural sequence of impressions. The result is always fatigue and revolt.

Part II. the author calls "The Paragraph," and it is here that we begin to get a clearer insight into his system, the object of which is to fix the mind primarily on *structure*. It would perhaps be a caricature of a book which contains much that is valuable to say that Mr. Hale's ideal in composition would be an ideal of form without content; but his method of treatment strongly suggests this. Illustrations may be found at every turn. Even in Part I. he shows his devotion to form by suggesting to the student in narration to write the end of his story first, because the end "makes the final impression," and "one should have it in mind all through." And so at p. 157: "Wishing, then, to end our paragraphs with the very best effect, we will think particularly what sort of effect we can give by manipulating the thought, and then what effect we can give by manipulating the style." A better practice, however, he thinks, is "writing beginnings." So we hear nothing about simplicity and clearness, the two essentials of all good elementary composition, till we reach a postscript to Parts I. and II., where they are described as intellectual qualities of style; the next mention is at p. 253, where, under Simile, we are told that, "if simplicity be our aim," "one form of synecdoche may to some extent take the place of example in other kinds of composition." When we have examined all that the author has to say about simplicity and clearness, we cannot help thinking that he regards them as almost figures of speech. A great deal of the book can be of little or no value except to very advanced students or expert rhetoricians. The tendency of much of it is to make the pupil mistake form for substance.

The fallacy which underlies what we object to in the book consists in the idea that the *art of writing* can be taught by means of what the author calls constructive rhetoric. Our experience is that the teacher can do very little beyond practising the learner in the expression of such ideas as he has (and they are usually not numerous), and that the system expounded by Mr. Hale, blindly followed, would inevitably produce, not good, but highly artificial writing. A curious instance of the effect upon himself of the author's devotion to form occurs at p. 278, where he declares that, by antonomasia, a boy who has accumulated more marbles than all his schoolfellows put together may properly be called "the Jay Gould or the Rothschild of this spherical currency." Yet on the next page he says, speaking of two other figures, "I do not believe that anybody was ever yet taught outright to speak ironically or to make good epigrams."

Those who have never had anything to do with writing or teaching others how to write, would be surprised to find how few beginners have any idea about the matter. One of the most invaluable accomplishments in practical life is the art of being able to reproduce a document or piece of writing of any kind in a condensed form. In any profession or business it is of the first importance to know how to do this. Without expertness in it, dispatches and letters cannot be abstracted, cases cannot be prepared for trial, news cannot be summarized for a newspaper. Yet expertness in it is very rare, solely from lack of early training. We believe that it ought to be taught wherever writing is taught; when learned, it is at once perceived to be a matter of substance, not form, and most people have to learn it for themselves. A student with this one thing for his equipment will, we believe, be ready for work, though he may have hardly a speaking acquaintance with metonymy or antonomasia, and never have heard of obverse iteration or anti-climax. Mr. Hale, far from recommending exercises of this sort, seems even to object to abstracts. He recommends "making analyses of the paragraph structure of other people's writing," but expressly says: "Don't try to make an abstract of the essay or whatever else you are at work on" (p. 117).

Our author, though so strong an advocate of form and rule in structure, is somewhat indifferent where diction is concerned. He seems to think that the student is more often at a loss for *some* word to express an idea than in difficulty as to the correct word (p. 187). This may be, but we believe that the reason is usually connected with lack of ideas rather than words. We have seldom met with anybody plentifully supplied with ideas who had not also a large vocabulary of some sort. Many young people have feelings and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

emotions which they long to express and cannot find words for, but feelings and emotions are not ideas. And why are not purity and propriety of diction and correct usage of just as much importance as correctness in style? All students are warned against mixed metaphors, though, as Mr. Hale points out (p. 260-1), any metaphor which introduces terms of both idea and image must be mixed, while on hearing the stock classical instance, "to take up arms against a sea of troubles," we are not disturbed, though the metaphors are absolutely incongruous. He would not, however, on this account recommend or teach the mixture of metaphors. Is there any reason for allowing a greater degree of slovenliness with regard to diction? Yet this seems to be at bottom Mr. Hale's idea, and the tendency of his book is accordingly to encourage the student to think that if he is correct in structure, he need not mind being slovenly in diction – which is surely a great mistake. He suggests (p. 243) that a class of men exists—*e. g.*, Walt Whitman—to whom it is "necessary" to "dismiss the care for good English from their minds and surge ahead." To tell this to a student is to mislead him. The student always has a tendency to think that rules are made for others, but that his is a peculiar case. The object of teaching is to show him that good work is possible only under rule. The important thing for him is to find out what good usage is, not to have it preached that good usage is always changing (p. 65), and that the usage of one century is not that of another. The fact is true enough, but it is of almost no help to any one learning how to use language. We live in a period of slovenly writing, and to direct the attention of students to the great evangelist of slovenliness, disorder, and barbarism, as if he belonged on this account to an acknowledged class of great writers, is all the more pity. The fact that language and usage are always changing is the very reason why correct usage is of so much importance. The author cites Campbell as an authority on the principles of good usage, and says "he is as valuable as ever." This means that good usage must be that of the present age, must be reputable, and must not bear the brand of locality, technicality, or provincialism. No one will quarrel with this, except those who think it necessary to dismiss the care for good English from their minds and surge ahead. But its importance needs to be emphasized, not minimized.

There is between Mr. Hale's 'Rhetoric' and Mr. Bates's 'Talks' (given in 1894 as a course in the Lowell Free Classes) a certain family likeness. One is a treatise, and the other a collection of conversational lectures, but both writers belong to the same school; in the teaching of both we detect the haunting influence of the same professional ideal—that of composition taught formally, as if without content or substance, as by instructors desiring to produce a perfected rhetorical man, skilled in all the arts of expression, but freed from the incubus of ideas. No doubt both of them would repudiate, as a travesty, any such description of their aim, and to be quite accurate we should perhaps say that such books suggest this as a sort of esoteric ideal, not to be rashly proclaimed in public doctrine, but to be cherished by the initiated and tentatively adumbrated to the neophyte. Mr. Bates, for instance, is for ever reminding us that writing is very like playing on the piano. A girl learns to play the instrument without composing music, and five-finger exercises are to musical composition what rhetoric is to writing. In both the student "must not think of what he is doing, but of how he is doing it" (p. 23). For the same reason, "it is well, in learning to write, to select uninteresting subjects," themes "which depend for their effectiveness not upon what they are, but upon the way in which they are presented" (p. 26). Mr. Bates regrets to find that students tend "to set to work to find something to write about which is in itself attractive," and declares that, do what he will, it is difficult to persuade them to stick to "careful attempts to express the commonplace."

All this does not prevent Mr. Bates from making sensible remarks about writing, but it leads to one very extraordinary consequence. Departing from "the time-honored custom of putting description and narrative before exposition and argument," he insists that exposition and argument shall come first. One of his principal reasons is that the pupil, in describing something or telling a story, is in danger of becoming interested in what he is about, and this emotion of interest may distract his mind and obstruct his progress in the cultivation of skill in form and technique. Have not the great performers on musical instruments been for the most part "trained technically while they were still so young or so undeveloped that the emotional capabilities of their nature were not matured?" (p. 125). It is an old saw that a metaphor proves nothing, but to this Mr. Bates does not agree where the piano and rhetoric are concerned.

Both Mr. Bates and Mr. Hale seem to have been curiously misled by some advice given by Flaubert to Maupassant (p. 24). The latter is very justly described as "one of the most finished masters of literary art, pure and simple, who have written in this century"; and Flaubert gave him some advice, in a whimsical vein, which Maupassant has reported. It does not follow from this that Flaubert's advice produced Maupassant's style, and, as a matter of fact, it did not. Maupassant would have us believe that Flaubert taught him "the way to become original." But this was precisely the one thing which the elder novelist could not teach the younger. The passage quoted is an extravagant and thoroughly French overstatement of the fancy that the essence of genius lies in an immense capacity for patient toil. If Maupassant were taken literally, it would mean that Flaubert taught him that by staring long enough at a familiar object, he would see in it something which no one had seen before. Whatever Flaubert taught Maupassant, it was certainly not his own method. For writers of English, Hawthorne's notebooks convey the lesson and record the results of painstaking literary practice much better than Maupassant's curious interpretation of French realism. Hawthorne is quoted (p. 238) as having declared the secret of his own style to be "the desire to tell the simple truth as honestly and vividly as one can." This is utterly different from trying to see something in an aspect that nobody has noticed before.

Authors and Friends. By Annie Fields. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

It is a happy fortune which enables us to see so many writers of the famous Boston coterie through the eyes of an intelligent, cultivated, and sympathetic woman, whose opportunities for knowing them were of the best. Mrs. Fields did not know them merely as the acquaintances and friends of her husband, James T. Fields, publisher and man of letters, but clearly, in several cases, in her own right as much as his—Mrs. Stowe and Mrs. Thaxter and Whittier, it would seem, much better, partly because her friendship with them went on and grew after her husband's death. Not unmindful of the privilege of such high companionship, there is no boasting as of the vase that it had been with the rose, and still less any deliberate suggestion of the peace and comfort which these authors and friends found under her hospitable roof. But the suggestion is no less evident because unconscious. It was inevitable, and one of the most beautiful things in Mrs. Fields's book is the reflection of her husband's cheerful kindness as a literary host, and her own perfect sympathy with him and intuitive coöperation. In and between the lines of the letters given here from one friend and another we have glimpses of the writer's personality quite as attractive as any she affords of those whom she esteemed so much. The scope of her book is not commensurate with that of Boston authorship. One of the greatest names is missing from the table of contents—that of Lowell—and why this happens is a problem which the curious psychologist will not refuse to entertain.

All these chapters, except the brief concluding one on Lady Tennyson, had previously appeared in print, though in some cases less adequately than here. The treatment varies not only with the subject, but also with the author's method of approaching it. The "Longfellow" is a biographical sketch in which Mrs. Fields avails herself of varied help, and is most happy when relying on her personal impressions. The delightful quality of these is substantially the same as that of others which have been published by Longfellow's friends. Sometimes the note impresses us as somewhat exaggerated or even false, as where it is said that "he was first of all a seer of beauty in common things." Hardly could anything be further out than this, and to speak of his life, as a whole, as being "crowded with incident and experience" is equally beside the mark. A more favorable impression is given of Longfellow's wit and humor than we have commonly received. On one occasion he "scintillated all the evening," but this is set down as a most unusual thing. Unlike another poet, he did not "celebrate himself," nor even talk about himself. In the conversation at the Craigie House there were many "flashes of silence" and periods of absent-mindedness, when the poet may have been upon the track of a new poem. To the misadventures of his enemies, the lion-hunters, there are some notable additions. On his return voyage from Europe in 1842 he was cabined and confined for fifteen days, twelve of them in his berth, and there he thought out by night his seven poems on slavery and wrote them down in the morning.

That "aloofness" which Margaret Fuller found in Emerson may account for the less personal tone of the second chapter, which is as characteristic of Emerson as the first is of Longfellow. "Emerson's Young Man," some new discovery of genius, was a constant joke among his friends. Once it was a youth in the far West who had sent him verses for his criticism. Apparently he has not been discovered. One of his lines which Emerson thought a great one was, as here given,

"Life is a flame whose splendor hides its base."

Our own recollection of Emerson's quotation is "Life is a lamp," etc., with another,

"The short parenthesis of life was sweet."

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

There is an amusing story of the elder Henry James's monopolizing one of Alcott's "conversations" until Emerson's Aunt Mary cried, "Let me confront the monster!"—suiting her action to the words. In spite of Emerson's distrust of laughter (wherein he was at Carlyle's antipodes), at Dickens's reading of 'Dr. Marigold' "he laughed as if he would crumble to pieces." He took his revenge later in the evening by declaring Dickens to be "too consummate an artist to have a thread of nature left." His indifference to "Faust" and his inability to read Dante Mrs. Fields attributes to his early reading of them in poor translations; but here, as elsewhere, her critical opinions are less valuable than her personal impressions. Emerson's reading of his "Voluntaries" to Mr. Fields at the Parker House in a disordered room which a former occupant had just vacated, is one of the choicest bits. Mr. Fields, it seems, suggested the title. The amount of coöperation in the Boston literary set is getting constantly fresh illustration.

Of all her literary friends in the first rank Holmes was the best known to Mrs. Fields, and no more creditable and engaging account of him has yet been written than her own. Although he was a near neighbor to the Fieldses, he wrote them many letters, and almost invariably when at the top of his condition. Some of his encounters with Hawthorne and Lowell are of special interest. Lowell praised his lyrics, but Holmes depreciated them as "too hopping." Evidently his "Chambered Nautilus" represented for him a mood to which he attained too seldom, when he was "rapt out of himself and carried away into the region of the divine" and taught what he should speak.

Mrs. Fields's acquaintance with Mrs. Stowe began with the civil war. We are shown how far a little went with her in the way of actual observation when she came to write 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Even more remarkable was her lack of apparent engagement with the subject of slavery before this. The circumstances under which she wrote her most famous book are well described in a passage taken from one of Mr. Fields's lectures. A habit which she had of suddenly retiring into herself in companies where she had been taking a leading part, must have been disappointing and embarrassing. She was always eager to try upon some friend, as soon as possible, what she had written. She was much interested in spiritualism, and her husband, who had a way of seeing visions, once mistook her for one, and treated her with distant courtesy until she began to laugh. Writing to George Eliot, she took for granted that Mr. Casaubon in 'Middlemarch' represented Mr. Lewes, and could with difficulty be cured of the idea. The irresponsible Will Ladislaw would have been a likelier guess.

The chapter on Celia Thaxter sounds the note of personal affection stronger than any of the others, and it is written the most continuously, with fewer letters to illustrate the character, because the sketch was made to introduce a volume of letters. Mrs. Thaxter's first published poem, "Land-Locked," is quoted in full as being "as beautiful as her latest work." If the critic had not been subordinate to the friend, would not Mrs. Fields have said that Mrs. Thaxter never wrote another poem quite so fine as that? All who knew her even a little will find it easy to believe the praises of her friend.

The Whittier chapter is valuable, not only for its delineation of Whittier, but for its glimpses of Mrs. Child and its tokens of the great esteem in which he held her graces and her gifts. The way in which she mingled her economies and charities was most admirable. When she gave Wendell Phillips $50 for the Kansas negroes, he thought it was too much and advised her to think it over. She did and sent another fifty later in the day. Whittier's interest in Robert Dale Owen is reported, but it was imperfect on the spiritualistic side. There is a true story current to the effect that when Owen, describing certain visions, asked Whittier what he should do if he should see such things, Whittier said, "I should scoot," and instantly made off. Rossetti's ballad, "Sister Helen," impressed Whittier the more because he had seen his aunt and mother burning the waxen image of a clergyman whose heresies they could not endure.

Tennyson was not inclined to personal talk. He preferred reading his own poems or those of other poets, and Mrs. Fields represents his reading, which was rather chanting, as remarkably impressive, especially when the matter was his own parting of Arthur and Guinevere. Mrs. Browning thought Tennyson's wife was not critical enough with him, but was she more critical with her own poet? It is evident from the exquisite sketch of Lady Tennyson that her share in her husband's occupation as a poet was unlimited, and that both their lives were singularly remote from common ways.

The Rise and Growth of the English Nation. With special reference to Epochs and Crises. A History of and for the People. By W. H. S. Aubrey, LL.D. 3 vols. D. Appleton & Co. 1896.

It is hard to see why this book should ever have been written. It is not exactly fatuous; it indicates a good deal of reading, on the whole wisely directed, as well as a certain hard common sense about matters of detail. But there is nothing new in it, either in the way of information or of philosophic generalization. It is perhaps half as long again as Green's 'Short History'; but no one whose opinion is worth having would advise a student or "the general reader" to spend his time over Mr. Aubrey's book rather than over Green. And when the student has read Green, he will be ready to turn to writers of larger calibre than Mr. Aubrey—to Macaulay and Gardiner and Lecky and Freeman and Stubbs.

The author tells us in his preface that the work is "written in no partisan or sectarian spirit." No doubt he has tried to be fair; but, as a matter of fact, the book is throughout that of a Radical of the generation just passing away, with all the limitations and self-satisfaction which only too frequently marked the race. He exemplifies, one cannot help saying, his own remark that "there is no prejudice so strong as that which arises from a fancied exemption from all prejudice" (iii., 27). A few examples will suffice. The account of the Anglo-Saxon Church bears the title "Rise of Ecclesiasticism"; and, before we get far into it, we are told that "a professional order of priests, whether Christian or pagan, Romanist or Protestant, is always a menace to a community" (i., 76). The Great Charter, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights "did not confer fresh privileges"; they only "reaffirmed" "ancient and indisputable public rights." (i., 229). "For nearly five hundred years," in the Middle Ages, the "Protective Spirit was rampant in every department of Church and State" (i., 372). The ecclesiastical system of the Middle Ages is described as the priesthood's "tawdry paraphernalia of dogma and mystery" (i.,390), rearing "a mighty fabric of tyranny on a foundation of imposture" (i., 392). When our author gets to the periods of the Stuarts and of George III.—the happy hunting-ground of commonplace Radicalism—he warms to his task: "James I. knew as much as a troglodyte of the people over whom he nominally ruled" (ii., 317); and Mr. Aubrey is apparently surprised to find that he "never forgot or forgave Andrew Melville for telling him in a public audience that his kingship was subordinate to Christ's, as embodied in the Kirk" (ii., 319). Laud, among other things, "derided patriotism" (ii., 394), and "attempted to extirpate freedom of thought" (ii., 396). And, finally, "the long reign of George III." may be "expressed in concise terms" as "sixty years of blundering, injustice, and repression" (iii., 200).

That there is an element of truth in each of these propositions and in scores of like remarks to be found in this work, we are not concerned to deny. But it is a truth that has long been sufficiently dinned into British and American ears; it panders to that conceit of the modern and enlightened which does so easily beset us; and it is so one-sided that it again and again misses the true issue. Even an evidently one-sided treatment of a subject may, indeed, be rendered attractive by charm of style or distinction of manner. What readers will find in Mr. Aubrey may be judged from this specimen of his sententious moralizing: "In every age there have been too many with souls wholly given to dress and adornment, yet having no innate sense of beauty, grace, or fitness, who suffer themselves to become mere lay figures for exhibiting the freaks of fashion, regardless of health, comfort, appropriateness or decorum" (i., 162).

However, it is not absolutely a sin to write even 1,400 pages with contents such as these. It must have furnished a pleasant occupation to the author for several years; and, after all, nobody need buy the book. What does irritate one is the pretentiousness of the performance, the air of unusual intelligence and novelty. This is going to be a history "of and for the People," says the title-page. "It is important to exhibit the Commonwealth, as distinct from what is called the State; the People, as distinct from the titular Monarch; and the National Life, as distinct from the trivial circumstances of the hour" (i., 3). Do not come to me, says Mr. Aubrey, for "records of royal imbecility, of palace scandals, of political huckstering, of factious strife, of official corruption, of battles and sieges, and of all the accidents and excrescences of former times." "They will be found," he observes with fine scorn, "in works specially devoted to Court millinery and upholstery" (i., 2).

Such a work as we are here promised would necessarily involve intense and prolonged application; and so Mr. Aubrey informs us. "Designed for popular reading, its pages are not burdened with footnotes giving the authorities." But "the utmost care has been taken . . . to use all available information," and "ordinary readers have no conception of the prolonged and toilsome labor of examining authorities" (i., 10). What he means by "examining authorities" we may gather from his remark apropos of the "three hundred and fifty volumes of the Rolls Series": "Life is not long enough to search among so many bushels of chaff for a few valuable grains of wheat. The bulk and multi-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tude of the Calendars" (an odd term) "would render them almost useless, but for their complete indices and introductory historical matter" (i., 9). The truth is, Mr. Aubrey's learning is chiefly second-hand; and his mental attitude is like that of scores of his predecessors. A history of the People he does not give us: he gives us only a crowd of disconnected facts and observations, put together in chapters by themselves at the end of each section of political history, in the good old semi-enlightened fashion. Take two sufficient instances. England in the Middle Ages was an agricultural country; from the point of view of social evolution, therefore, the one all-important subject of mediæval history is the condition of the peasants. Mr. Aubrey returns to it again and again for a few sentences, but the most intelligent reader might be defied to construct out of them a clear picture of the situation—for the simple reason that Mr. Aubrey has no clear understanding of it himself. He may have turned over the pages, he cannot have given any sustained thought even to the books he parades in his Bibliographical List. Vinogradoff would have saved him from repeating the old fiction about *villeins regardant* and *in gross* (i., 168)—a small matter, but significant.

England, again, is "the classic land" of "the great industry." "The Industrial Revolution" has profoundly affected the lives of tens of millions of Englishmen. Will it be believed that to the inventions in the textile industries and their effects Mr. Aubrey devotes in all some forty-four lines (iii., 246, 292), about as many as are given to George III.'s lunacy (iii., 243); fewer and far less impressive than those on "the progress of invention" in Mr. S. R. Gardiner's book, which professes only to supply the wants of schoolboys ('Student's History,' 814-818)? The point need not be labored. In dealing with political history Mr. Aubrey does avoid unnecessary detail; names and dates are mercifully few. But he has not really risen above the political point of view, and his work is essentially conventional.

The Cell in Development and Inheritance. By Edmund B. Wilson. Macmillan. 8vo, pp. xvi, 371. 1896.

THIS volume is one of the very best scientific manuals published in America, and is sure of a rapid recognition and generous welcome, not in this country alone, but in Europe also. Its importance depends first upon the subject, and second upon the author's presentation. The subject is of course as old as the cell-theory itself, but the observations upon which our present views are based have been made almost wholly within the last twenty years, and most of them within the last ten years. These observations have brought a whole series of new conceptions before the scientific world—conceptions which bear upon the fundamental questions of biology, and are equally significant to zoölogists, botanists, and philosophers. We are confronted with new theories of generation, of sexuality, of heredity, of growth, and of the chemistry of living matter, and all created out of a wealth of new discoveries unparalleled in any other domain of biology. As a rule, zoölogists and botanists pursue their independent ways; but in the domain of cell phenomena they have worked during the last dozen years in true collaboration, earning thus great rewards.

Treatises on the cell as the unit of vital phenomena have been recently published in German by Oskar Hertwig, and in French by Henneguy, both authorities of the highest rank, who have won reputation by these works. These have a strong impress of their respective authors. That which marks Wilson's book is precisely the absence of the personal element. He gives, not special arguments in favor of his own views, or fuller presentations of his own researches, which have been important, but a well-proportioned and balanced summary, in which his own work is measured fairly with that of others. This mental impartiality has bestowed a special value upon the author's digest of the hundreds of investigations he has epitomized, and is displayed again in the very large number of exact citations which he gives. For these citations he has adopted the system of Mark and Minot, which is simple, concise, and precise, and mars the text very slightly. The list of authorities is imposing, for it covers thirteen closely printed pages, although it includes only the titles of works actually referred to in the text. A noteworthy characteristic of the book is its thoroughness. Prof. Wilson shows an extensive personal familiarity not only with the phenomena which he discusses, but also with the observations and opinions of numerous other investigators.

As regards the forms of presentation and the style, the author excels. His treatise is of course not addressed to the general reader, but to persons having at least some knowledge of cells. To such readers the chapters will be clear, interesting, and instructive. The new technical terms, which are unfortunately rather numerous, are explained as they first occur, and are also gathered in a glossary at the end of the volume. The definitions in the glossary are almost uniformly admirable.

The subject-matter is divided into an introduction and nine chapters, as follows: i., General Sketch of the Cell; ii., Cell-Division; iii., Germ-Cells; iv., Fertilization of the Ovum; v., Reduction of the Chromosomes, Oögenesis, and Spermatogenesis; vi., Some Problems of Cell-Organization; vii., Some Aspects of Cell-Chemistry and Cell-Physiology; viii., Cell-Division and Development; ix., Theories of Inheritance and Development. Each of these topics is well analyzed, and the often conflicting views are adequately given. It is here that Prof. Wilson's good temper and sound judgment reveal themselves advantageously. In such a book it is important to express the author's estimate of the value of diverging opinions, to assist the reader to decide which view is at the time most plausible, or, when this is impossible, at least clearly to state that the evidence is insufficient. It will be found that Prof. Wilson has met these demands with conspicuous conscientiousness and yet temperately.

The defects which we have found relate to minor points. Thus, Weismann is erroneously quoted as one of the founders of the view that the nucleus is the organ of heredity (p. 5); Purkinje and Oken should be cited in connection with the history of the cell-doctrine; the quantitative relations of the protoplasm to the nucleus should be noticed. It is, however, better to leave such petty criticisms, for it is a truer service to the reader to emphasize the very great merits of a work which does the highest credit to American science. The mechanical appearance of the volume is good. The typography is clear and the illustrations, which are numerous, are well printed and they have been well chosen. A large proportion are original. A double index (of authors cited and of subjects), prepared with much care, facilitates looking up any special point. The volume is the fourth of the Columbia University Biological Series, and will certainly go far towards sustaining and increasing the reputation of Columbia as one of the three or four best University centres for biological research in America. In conclusion, we may say that students and investigators of biology, in whatever department they may be working, ought to be familiar with this important work.

John Wellborn Root: A Study of his Life and Work. By Harriet Monroe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

THIS square octavo volume of 290 pages is devoted to the life of an architect of most interesting personality, who had much to do with the furnishing of the great West with considerable buildings. There is no doubt of the originality of conception and vigor of design which Root showed in his work. He was one of the few who designed as a trained instinct bids them in view of the requirements of a structure, and the plan which those requirements have brought into being. Yet it can hardly be said that anything portrayed in these pages is likely to be considered a monument of architecture such as the world will desire to preserve.

The chapter which deals with Root's ideas of modern architecture contains many of the architect's own sayings, extracts from papers, and the like, which are full of sound sense. In one of these extracts he says plainly that whenever in the world there has been "a period or style of architecture worth preserving, its inner spirit was so closely fitted to the age wherein it flourished that the style could not be fully preserved, either by people who immediately succeeded it, or by us after many years." This cogent sentence he elucidates by very intelligible and very persuasive examples. Had it been possible for a large sense of propriety to embody itself at once in architectural results, Root would have been the man to bring about such a change in our architecture as the times required. Indeed, he was in a very large sense that which the West needed most, namely, the man who would persuade intending builders to give up galvanized iron cornices and jig-saw ornament, as the author of this book says, and to demand of them sounder and more serious methods of building.

The succeeding chapter is devoted to Root's work and its results, and in these two chapters lies the value of the book for other readers than those who were his friends and associates. The rest of the volume is an interesting biography of a man who lived a simple and straightforward life of work and thought, but it is of no special value as illustrating the surroundings of the man, either in his boyhood in the South or in his manhood spent in the West. The appendix, written by Mr. Henry Van Brunt, serves at once as a friendly and cordial criticism of the book and an obituary notice of its subject. Mr. Van Brunt refers to a list, which he has by him, of the work done by the firm of Burnham & Root, and sums it up. This final statement is of a certainly surprising number of important buildings: "forty-four structures of a public character, such as office-buildings, hotels, churches, apartment-buildings, schools, railway stations, etc., in Chicago; twenty-five of the same classes elsewhere; eight buildings to cost from $400,000 to $1,000,000 each, in course of erection, and one hundred and twenty residences of the first class." Assuredly this is a

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

remarkable record for eighteen years, and it is probably true, as Mr. Van Brunt asserts, that "there are fewer indications in this series of the forcing of structure into archæological or academic moulds than can be found in any modern European examples of corresponding buildings" The question which remains unanswered, and which the future only can answer, is how far this serious effort will be crowned with the success which it merits.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

America and the Americans. From a French Point of View. Scribners. $1.25.
Bordeaux, Henry. La Vie et l'Art: Sentiments et Idées de ce Temps. Paris: Perrin & Cie.
Boughton, Prof. Willis. History of Ancient Peoples. Putnams. $2
Buckley, Rev. J. M. A History of Methodism in the United States. Vol. I. Christian Literature Co. $2 50.
Carter, A. C. R The Year's Art, 1897. London: J. S. Virtue & Co.; New York: Brentano's.
Cassell's Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe. 1897. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Cattaneo, Raffaele. Architecture in Italy from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century. London: Unwin; New York: Truslove & Comba.
Chambers, R. W. With the Band. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Evans, Mrs. Elizabeth E. Ferdinand Lassalle and Helene von Dönniges: A Modern Tragedy. London: Sonnenschein & Co.
Farmer, J. E. Essays on French History. Putnams. $1.25.
Fawcett, Edgar. A Romance of Old New York. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Felts, W. W. Natural Law in the Business World. New York: The Author. 25c.
Florenz, K., and Lloyd, A. Poetical Greetings from the Far East: Japanese Poems. Tokyo: T. Hosegawa.
Gavard, Charles. A Diplomat in London: Letters and Notes, 1871-1877. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Giles, Marie F. The End of the Journey. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
Holland, Clive. A Writer of Fiction. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Hoppin, Prof. J. M. Greek Art on Greek Soil. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Johnston, Prof. Alexander, and Woodburn, Prof. J. A. American Orations. Vol. IV. Putnams. $.25
Knapp. Harriet L. Miriam's Tower. G.W. Dillingham. 50c.
Lanza, Clara Horace Everett. G. W. Dillingham. $1.50.
Litchfield, Grace D In the Crucible. Putnams. $1 25.
Mach, Prof. Ernst. Contributions to the Analysis of the Sensations. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Mercer, H. C. Researches upon the Antiquity of Man in the Delaware Valley and the Eastern United States. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.
Montgomery J. Z. Modern Book-keeping. Maynard, Merrill & Co 80c.
Ozanam, Frédéric Dante and Catholic Philosophy. New York: Cathedral Library Association. $1.50.
Papers and Speeches at the Seventeenth Church Congress held in Norfolk, Va. Whittaker. $1.
Phillpotts, Eden. Lying Prophets. New York: P. F. Collier. 25c.
Philpot, Mrs. J. H. The Sacred Tree; or, The Tree in Religion and Myth. Macmillan. $3.
Pictet, Raoul. Etude Critique du Matérialisme et du Spiritualisme par la Physique Expérimentale. Paris: Félix Alcan.
Prowse, D. W. A History of Newfoundland. 2d ed., revised and corrected London: Eyre & Spottiswoode; New York: Brentano's.
Russell, Israel C. Glaciers of North America. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1 90.
Sharp, Archibald. Bicycles and Tricycles: An Elementary Treatise on their Design and Construction. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Smyth, J. P. The Divine Library: Suggestions how to Read the Bible. James Pott & Co.
Standling, Jonas and Reason, Will. In the Land of Tolstoi Whittaker. $2
Storrs, L. A. Koheleth: A Novel. G. W. Dillingham. $1.
Stump, Rev Joseph. Life of Philip Melancthon. Reading, Pa.: Pilger Publishing House.
The Coming of Chloe. By the "Duchess." Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.

"The broadest and the most able of the American periodicals devoted to education."—*New York Times.*

MARCH
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

Edited by
PROFESSOR NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.

ARTICLES. American Students and the Scottish Universities, by R. M. Wenley; The Peabody Education Fund, by J. L. M. Curry; Organization of City School Boards, by James C. Boykin; The Sentence-Diagram, by Gertrude Buck; The Throat of the Child, by Henry J. Mulford; An Interview with the Shade of Socrates, by William Hawley Smith; Arithmetic in Rural and Village Schools, by David E. Smith; A Normal School in France.

REVIEWS. EDITORIAL.

☞The price of the FEW COMPLETE SETS OF THE REVIEW (Jan., '91. Dec. '96, contents free) has been increased to $24 unbound, or $33 bound, subject to further increase without notice. A few of the BACK VOLUMES can be supplied SEPARATELY.

$3 a year (10 Nos.), 35c. per number.

HENRY HOLT & CO.,
29 WEST 23D STREET, NEW YORK.

Completion of the English Edition of "ZELLER'S GREEK PHILOSOPHY."

Aristotle and the Earlier Peripatetics.

Being a Translation from Zeller's "Philosophy of the Greeks."

By B. F. C. COSTELLOE, M.A., and J. H. MUIRHEAD, M.A., both of the University of Glasgow and Balliol College, Oxford. Two volumes, crown 8vo, pp. xi+520, ix+512, $7.00.

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO.,
PUBLISHERS,
91-93 Fifth Avenue, New York

Maison Ad. Braun & Co.
OF PARIS.
Braun, Clement & Co., Succrs.,
257 FIFTH AVE.,
NEW YORK,
HAVE JUST PUBLISHED THE
PRADO GALLERY OF MADRID
IN
272 Inalterable Carbon-Photographs,
TAKEN DIRECT FROM THE ORIGINAL CANVASES.
Catalogues Ten Cents.

NEW BOOKS

Robert the Bruce

And the Struggle for Scottish Independence. By Sir HERBERT MAXWELL. New volume (No. 19) in *Heroes of the Nations Series.* Fully illustrated. Large 12mo, $1.50; half leather, gilt top, $1.75.

The "Heroes of the Nations" is a series of biographical studies of the lives and work of certain representative historical characters, about whom have gathered the great traditions of the nations to which they belonged, and who have been accepted, in many instances, as types of the several national ideals. Edited under the editorial supervision of Evelyn Abbott, M.A., of Balliol College.

The God-Idea of the Ancients;

Or, Sex in Religion. By ELIZA BURT GAMBLE, author of "The Evolution of Woman." 8vo.

Mrs. Gamble's purpose has been not only to furnish a brief outline of religious growth, but to show the effect which each of the two forces, female and male, has had upon the development of our present God-idea. Her investigation of the subject has served to accentuate the conclusions arrived at in her earlier book relative to the inheritance of each of the two lines of the sexual demarcation.

Hypnotism,

And its Application to Practical Medicine. By OTTO GEORG WETTERSTRAND, Member of the Society for Swedish Physicians at Stockholm, Corresponding Member of the Society for Psychical Research, London, etc. Authorized Translation from the German edition, together with Medical Letters on Hypno-Suggestion, etc. By HENRIK G. PETERSEN, M.D., Member of the Société d'Hypnologie et de Psychologie, Paris, etc. 8vo, $2.00.

Braithwaite's Retrospect.

A half-yearly journal of Practical Medicine and Surgery, containing a retrospective view of every discovery and practical improvement in the medical science, abstracted from the leading medical journals of Europe and America. Edited by JAMES BRAITHWAITE, M.D., Surgeon to the Leeds Hospital for Women and Children. 12mo, subscription per year, $2.50; per single part, $1 50.

G.P. PUTNAM'S SONS
NEW YORK AND LONDON.

SEND IN YOUR NAME AT ONCE to the Readers' Co-operative League, Box 223, Brooklyn, N. Y., if you wish to receive Free Specimen Copies of all the leading periodicals of the United States. Also send the names of your friends *who are readers.* Enclose stamp for reply, giving plan.

KINDERGARTEN SUPPLIES
at SCHERMERHORN'S, 3 East 14th Street, N. Y.
Send for new Catalogue.

Cambridge Edition
OF
Famous Poets,
Comprising in single volumes the Complete Poetical Works
OF
James Russell Lowell,
Henry Wadsworth Longfellow,
John G. Whittier,
Oliver Wendell Holmes,
Robert Browning,

Each printed from new plates, large type, on opaque paper, and attractively bound. With Biographical Sketches, Notes, Indexes, fine Portraits, and engraved title-pages, with Vignettes, generally of the poets' homes. Large crown 8vo, gilt top, price (except Browning) $2.00; half calf, gilt top, $3.50; tree calf or full levant, $5.50. Browning, cloth, $3.00; half calf, gilt top, $5.00; tree calf or full levant, $7.00.

Sold by Booksellers. Sent, postpaid, by
HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO., Boston.
11 East 17th Street, New York.

Yale Mixture.
A GENTLEMAN'S SMOKE.
You won't know the luxury of Pipe-Smoking until you use Yale Mixture.
A two-oz. trial package, postpaid, for 25 cts.
MARBURG BROS.,
The American Tobacco Co., Successor,
Baltimore, Md.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Variorum Edition of Shakespeare

CONTAINING THE READINGS OF THE VARIOUS EDITORS.

—EDITED BY—

HORACE HOWARD FURNESS, Ph.D., LL.D., L.H.D.

With Critical Commentaries.

Royal octavo volumes. Superfine toned paper. Extra cloth, uncut edges, gilt top, **$4.00** per volume.
Half morocco, gilt top, in sets only, **$50.00.**

A Midsummer Night's Dream

The Tempest
King Lear
Hamlet
(Two Volumes)
Romeo and Juliet

A Shakespearian Encyclopædia

As You Like It
Othello
Macbeth
The Merchant of Venice

"Horace Howard Furness is probably the most thorough Shakespearian student who has ever lived, and this work is a monument of learning, of patient research, and of intelligent application such as has rarely been produced in the world of literature."—*Boston Courier.*

"America has the honor of having produced the very best and most complete edition, so far as it has gone, of our great national poet. For text, illustration, commentary, and criticism it leaves nothing to be desired."—*Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine.*

"We do not hesitate to say that Horace Howard Furness's Variorum Edition is one of the most notable contributions to Shakespeare literature in the present century."—*Manchester (Eng.) Guardian.*

For sale by all booksellers, or will be sent upon receipt of price by the publishers

J. B. LIPPINCOTT COMPANY

715 and 717 Market Street = = = = = PHILADELPHIA

APPLETONS'

Popular Science Monthly.

MARCH, 1897.

The Racial Geography of Europe. II. Prof. WILLIAM Z. RIPLEY.
The second of a series of sociological studies, describing the shape of the head as a racial trait.

The Physiology of Alcohol. Prof. C. F. HODGE.
Containing an account of some research work which has been done for the Committee of Fifty for the Investigation of the Liquor Problem.

The Malarial Parasite. Dr. GEO. M. STERNBERG.
Giving an account of the discovery of this blood parasite and the grounds upon which it is accepted by well informed pathologists.

India Rubber and Gutta-Percha. CLARKE DOOLEY.
Showing its origin, first uses, growth, and the uses to which it is now applied.

Other articles on Rules essential to an Administration of Rightful Taxation under a Constitutional or Free Government; "Confessions" of a Normal School Teacher; The Stability of Truth; A Year of the X Rays (illustrated): The Blaschka Flower Models (illustrated); The Cliff-Dweller's Sandal (illustrated); Sketch of John Gundlach (with Portrait).

Correspondence; Editor's Table; Scientific Literature; Fragments of Science.

50 cents a number; $5.00 a year.

D. APPLETON & CO., NEW YORK

Letters of Credit. We buy and sell bills of exchange on and make Cable Transfers of money to Europe, Australia, and South Africa; also make collections and issue Commercial and Travellers' Credits, available in all parts of the world.

BROWN BROTHERS & CO.
NO. 59 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

$1,000 IN GOLD

will be paid in prizes for the best answers to examination papers containing **150** questions about things we all want to know. No acquaintance with the classics or higher mathematics is required for this competition; a bright schoolboy or a clear-headed business man can do as well as a college professor. But these prizes can only be won by people who use

The Century Dictionary and Cyclopedia

500,000 Definitions.
150,000 Encyclopedic Articles.
300,000 Quotations.
8,000 Engravings.
The World's Greatest Reference Work.
An International Authority.

The award committee will consist of college professors whose names will be announced later.

You can obtain immediate possession of this great work in cash, the balance to be paid in small monthly payments, and (with diligence) win one of the prizes. (First Prize, **$500.**)

For $5 Only

If you want a descriptive pamphlet of the work, or details of the competition, address

THE CENTURY CO., (Dept. L.) New York

"YOU may not be worthy to smoke the 'ARCADIA' MIXTURE.'"
—J. M. B—, in "My Lady Nicotine."

Send 25 cents for sample to

THE SURBRUG CO., 37 Dey Street, N. Y. City.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED